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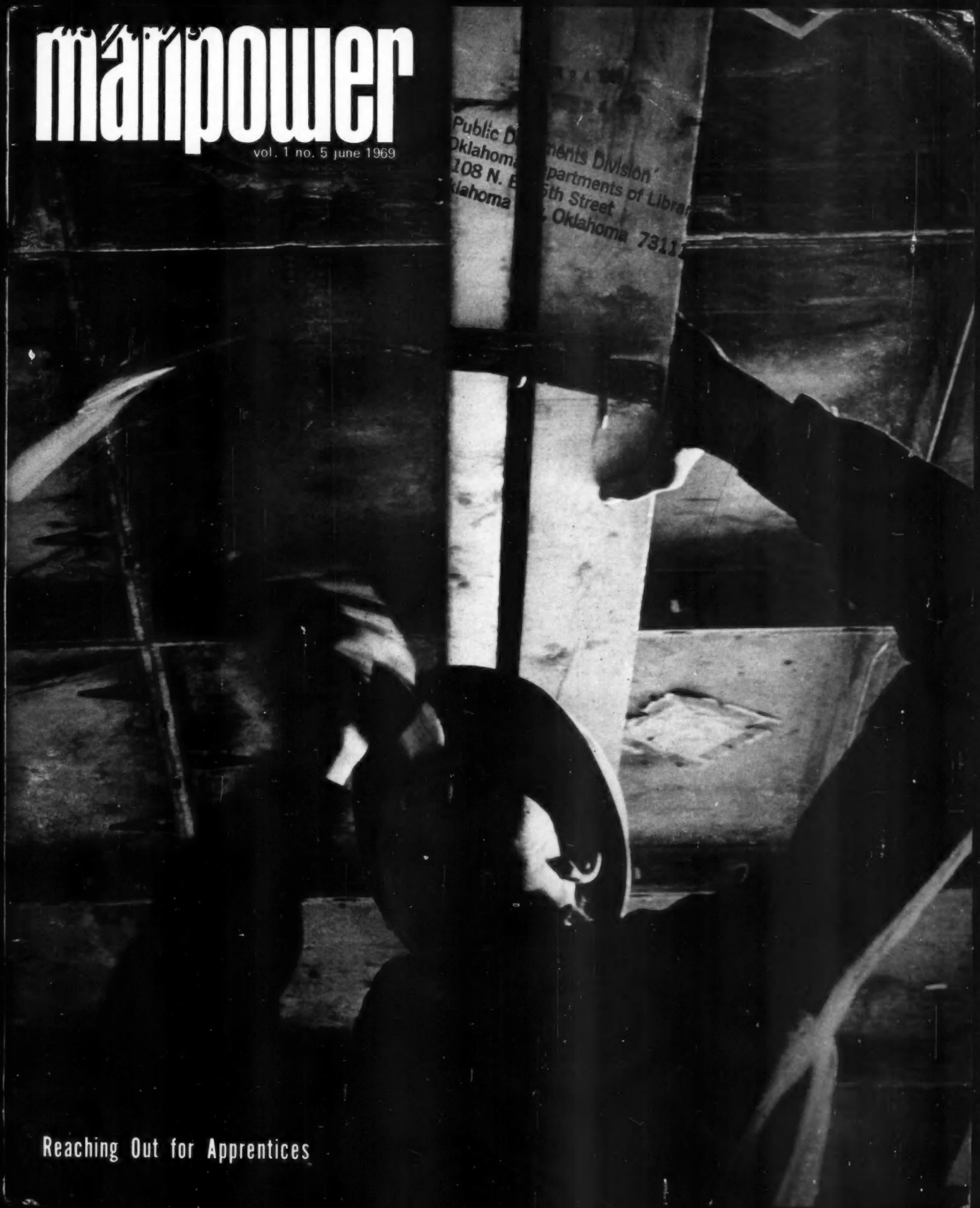

Reaching Out for Apprentices

manpower

The Promise of America

"So then to every man his chance — to every man, regardless of his birth, his shining, golden opportunity — to every man the right to live, to work, to be himself, and to become whatever thing his manhood and his vision can combine to make him — this, seeker, is the promise of America."

Thomas Wolfe
You Can't Go Home Again

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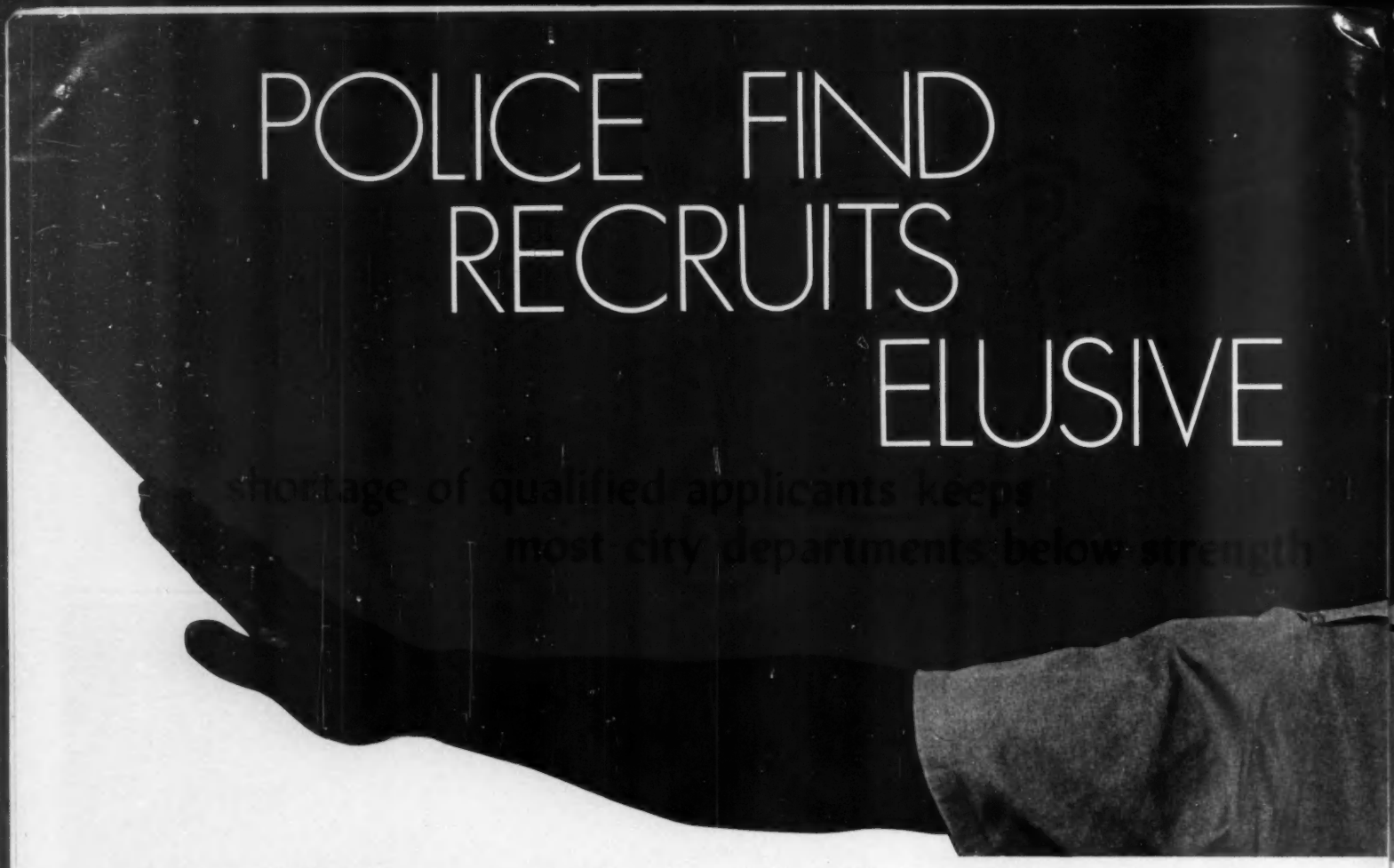
POLICE FIND RECRUITS ELUSIVE



shortage of qualified applicants keeps most city departments below strength

By Abraham H. Berzen

Like nickel beer and vaudeville, the corner cop is disappearing from the American scene. The patrolman who walked the neighborhood beat and knew many of its residents has, for the most part, been replaced by a stranger in a police car.

Part of the reason for the disappearance of the corner cop is technological. Policemen can cover a lot more territory in cars than on foot. They can also carry a lot more equipment. Still, some police officials and criminologists contend that the use of foot patrolmen continues to be the most effective method of law enforcement. They argue that nothing can replace the value of the beat patrolman's "visibility" and his knowledge of the neighborhood and its people.

For most police departments, however, this argument is academic. They do not have the manpower to make extensive use of foot patrolmen. In the face of a steady and substantial rise in crime rates, many major police departments are encountering serious recruiting problems and have been for a number of years.

Although the total of police employees at the local level of government has been growing at an annual average rate of about 3.5 percent in recent years, most of the country's nearly 40,000 non-Federal police departments have a manpower shortage.

Between 1960 and 1968, the Nation's population increased 11.5 percent while the crime rate shot up 89 percent. According to the Department of Justice the Nation had an overall ratio of 1.8 police officers to every 1,000 persons in 1967. In 1950 the ratio was 1.9 officers per 1,000 persons. Thus, the ratio of police officers to overall population declined more than 5 percent between 1950 and 1967.

The 1967 report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice noted that almost all large police departments in the United States were below their authorized strength. Of some 300 police departments surveyed in 1965—including nearly all large cities—65 percent were below strength. The average force was 5 percent below its quota; the average large-city department was 10 percent under strength.

A 1967 survey conducted by the Kansas City Police Department covering 37 cities with populations between 300,000 and 1 million showed the police departments to be an average of 7 percent under strength.

Most police departments do not have trouble getting applicants. But they do have serious problems obtaining enough qualified applicants. And the situation appears to be getting worse. The presidential commission reported that the acceptance rate for police applicants dropped from 29.9 percent in 1956 to 22.3 percent in 1961. In 1967 Washington, D.C., accepted only 19 percent of the applicants for its police force and Los Angeles hired only 11.5 percent.

With crime rising alarmingly and qualified applicants becoming harder and harder to get, police departments across the country are using a variety of techniques to improve their recruiting. Some cities are making special efforts to find

Mr. Berzen is a member of the Manpower Administration information staff.

candidates among minority groups. Success in hiring Negroes and Spanish-speaking Americans would not only help alleviate police manpower problems, it also could improve police-community relations in ghetto areas.

Methods of recruiting police manpower are as varied as the departments that do the recruiting. In some cases, prospective applicants read about existing vacancies in newspapers or in notices posted in public buildings. Policemen themselves frequently are a good source of candidates from among their friends, relatives, and neighbors. Some police departments offer cash or time off to members of the force whose recommendations result in successful recruitment.

The problem is one of quality not quantity, says Lt. Hugh Ennis of the Phoenix Police Department's recruiting office, echoing the most oft-heard complaint of police recruiters. The department has plenty of applicants but relatively few qualify after taking all the required tests.

The department, 4 percent under strength, runs advertisements in statewide police trade papers and journals, and recruits servicemen through the Early Release Program, under which the military services are authorized to release men 90 days before their normal discharge date if they agree to work for a specific police department anywhere in the country.

Phoenix also recruits by radio and TV and its police officers go to low-income areas to reach as many minority group prospects as possible. Officers of the department's Community Relations Section attend neighborhood council meetings conducted by Operation Leap, a federally financed inner-city program, to talk to minority groups about police jobs.

Police aides—young men 18 to 21 years old—are used in Phoenix to transport vehicles to the garage and to do clerical work and a variety of other tasks that do not require a police officer. The aides become familiar with many aspects of police work and release regular officers for more important duties. When he reaches 21, an aide can apply for regular police work through normal channels.

Denver conducts a year-round police recruitment campaign through local radio, TV, and newspapers. The Police Department has a cadet program under which high school graduates are enrolled in Denver's Metro State College to pursue a police science degree. Tuition is paid by the department and the cadet takes either a 2- or 4-year course, depending on his age. A number of recruits have been obtained from the military services through the Early Release Program.

The department takes full-page ads in local newspapers in which minority group police officers give their reasons for becoming policemen and explain the advantages of being members of the force. Radio and TV also are used for this purpose. Still, Denver's Police Department is about 60 men short of its authorized strength of 1,015.

Lt. Earl C. Shelton, acting director of the District of Columbia Police Personnel Division, is one of many police officials who feel that police officers should take the initiative in "selling" police work as a career to potential candidates. Men already on the force have a recruiting

responsibility, Shelton believes. He points out that the D.C. Police Department offers $50 to each officer who brings a candidate into the ranks.

The D.C. Police Department conducts a cadet program. Representatives of the department constantly make the rounds of area high schools to sell the idea of police work to young men in their senior year. By the time a prospective candidate graduates, he is ready to enroll as a police cadet if he passes the physical and written tests. For the next 3 years—or until he reaches 21, the minimum age for joining the force—he works for the police department. Cadet pay starts at $4,937 and goes to $5,829 in the third year.

Cadets perform a wide range of jobs inside and outside, learning the work they will later do as policemen. They work in all divisions of the department, for varying periods of time, covering the full range of duties, but they do not have the power of arrest. Cadets are required to enroll in a local university and satisfactorily complete college-level courses, with tuition paid in full by the department.

In its effort to use as many avenues as possible for recruitment, the D.C. Police Department operates two mobile vehicles that visit low-income areas in the city to give qualifying tests. However, some 50 percent of applicants who pass the written test do not appear for the physical exam.

Applicants who fail any part of the written test are encouaged to enroll in adult education courses and take the test again later.

D.C. Recruits Nationwide

As the Nation's Capital, Washington is a Federal city and its police force comes under the Federal Civil Service. Recruiting is nationwide through the civil service system. Announcements of D.C. police vacancies appear in post offices throughout the country.

The Early Release Program has proved particularly helpful to D.C. police recruiting. Of the 789 men recruited in 1968, 338 were located through military separation centers.

Despite access to nationwide recruiting machinery and extensive use of the Early Release Program, the D.C. Police Department continues to find it difficult to fill vacancies. It has fallen far short of its goal of recruiting 100 new officers a month to fill the 1,000 new positions it was granted last September.

In Cleveland, the story is the same: Many are called but few are chosen. A recent recruiting drive brought in 1,100 applicants; less than 300 passed all the required tests. The city is more than 20 percent under its authorized police strength of 2,700.

Two years ago Cleveland dropped its residence requirement for police and it is now laying plans to begin recruiting in neighboring States and then later to expand its effort nationwide. Plans call for sending integrated police teams to various localities to talk about police work, including the fact that, by law, Cleveland must pay its police 3 percent more than any other Ohio city with a population above 50,000.

Houston Lowers Age Floor

Almost 2 years ago Houston lowered the minimum age for its policemen from 21 to 19. A Houston policeman can retire after 20 years of service, thus making it possible for a youngster who joins the force at 19 to retire at 39. Nevertheless, Capt. W. T. Higgins, director of the Houston Police Academy, says, "If we could find 300 men this year who could qualify, the city would authorize their appointments to the department."

Local business and industry boost police recruiting in Pittsburgh. A 30-day campaign, from mid-March to mid-April, in which local mass media donate advertising services valued at some $200,000, is mounted to help the police department's recruiting activities. The campaign includes radio and television announcements by prominent show business personalities.

The business community also helps by providing scholarship grants paying up to 75 percent of the tuition costs for policemen who attend Allegheny Community College for a 2-year degree in police science. About 10 percent of the force takes the course. Those who complete it get an automatic promotion.

Members of the Black Guardians of Pittsburgh, an organization of Negro police officers, visit churches, schools, and similar institutions in Negro areas to stimulate interest in police work.

In another move to spur recruiting, residency requirements were relaxed recently. But the Pittsburgh police force remains about 100 men short of its full complement of 1,500 officers.

Los Angeles boasts one of the highest paid police departments in the Nation and laments a shortage of more than 400 police officers out of a total authorized force of 6,435. Only about 8 percent of those applying for police jobs in Los Angeles actually graduate from the Police Academy, according to Pat Patterson, the department's selection officer.

Los Angeles has no cadet program, but it has a Police Student Work Program for full-time college students age 18 to 21. The students work 20 hours a week for the department during the school year and full time during the summer. At 21, they are eligible for the Police Academy, where they take the regular course of 12 weeks of classroom work, 4 weeks in patrol assignments, and a final 4 weeks in the classroom. Academy trainees receive full pay.

The Los Angeles Police Department recently hired six ex-convicts as nonuniformed members of its Community Relations Division. The six, two of whom are Negroes and three of whom are Mexican Americans, were among eight young men who "graduated" to regular civil service jobs in the Community Relations Division from New Careers, a U.S. Department of Labor program designed to train disadvantaged men and women in support jobs with career ladders in professional fields.

No Shortage in Chicago

Not all police departments have recruiting difficulties. Chicago is one that does not. Richard Heffernan, assistant personnel director for the Chicago police, attributes the department's recruiting success to the comparatively high pay scale, promotional opportunities, and the attractiveness of the Police Academy's educational program.

Chicago is conducting a special program with Federal funds obtained under the Manpower Development and Training Act to qualify members of the city's large Spanish-speaking community for police work. A 20-week course is given to Puerto Rican, Mexican American, and other Spanish-speaking young men who have first been screened to see if they can pass the department's physical test and character investigation. They are taught English

and instructed on how to overcome problems of assimilation.

The program is given wide publicity in the Spanish-language press, radio, and television and is promoted through personal contacts by policemen and by signs in stores, barber shops, and similar places where Spanish-speaking young men are likely to gather.

Of the 80 men who took the first course, 40 passed and 20 qualified for appointment to the force. These 20 then received 31 weeks of training at the Police Academy at full pay.

Atlanta, another city that has been able to maintain its police force near full strength, has developed a Community Service Officer Program designed to give Negro youngsters from poor areas a taste of police work. The young men, aged 16 to 25, work for the department from June to September. Each one works in his own neighborhood, accompanying a regular policeman assigned to the area. Because of their knowledge of the neighborhood and its problems, the youngsters are helpful to the regular officers and get a chance to discover if they would like to make police work a career.

Even if the authorized size of most police departments remains static, the need for new officers is likely to increase substantially over the next decade. Many policemen started their careers in the years immediately following World War II and are approaching retirement age. In 1967, for example, non-Federal police departments across the Nation needed 50,000 new officers.

The qualifications required for police work differ from locality to locality. There is, however, a trend toward higher educational requirements—a step that many police officials believe will upgrade the quality of the profession and enhance its image. This trend is reflected in the increasing number of colleges that offer courses in police science. Five years ago only about 60 colleges and universities offered a degree in police science. Now more that 185 institutions of higher learning have either a 2- or 4-year course leading to a police science degree.

A high school diploma meets the current educational requirements of the overwhelming majority of State and local police forces. But men seeking to advance in the law enforcement profession may face stiffer qualifications in the future.

Beginning in 1974, the Nassau County, N.Y., Police Department plans to require 2 years of college for any officer seeking promotion to sergeant or a higher position. The county's long-range plan envisions a 2-year college requirement for all officers.

Police Commissioner John L. Barry of adjoining Suffolk County expects his department to have some type of college requirement "perhaps in 10 years." Suffolk County Deputy Commissioner John P. Finnerty says college training is becoming necessary because the police are "moving away from being pure crook chasers and traffic controllers into scientific technology and behavioral control."

In light of present recruiting problems, it is an open question how police departments will fare in filling vacancies if qualifications are raised. There are a variety of views on why police departments are unable to attract enough qualified applicants to meet their present needs. Pay, of course, is a key factor.

Salaries Vary Widely

Across the Nation the median entrance pay for policemen is about $6,000 a year. But salaries vary considerably even within the same State. A survey of police pay made in February 1968 showed starting pay of $647 a month in San Diego compared to $747 in San Francisco. Starting monthly salary in Dover, Del., was $380; in Wilmington it was $433. A rookie policeman in Flint, Mich., earned $534 a month; his counterpart in Dearborn was paid $622. Raleigh, N.C., paid a starting monthly salary of $445, while the rate in Winston-Salem was $515.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice said many qualified young men hesitate to become policemen because of the routine nature of much of the work, particularly a recruit's duties.

"Few persons whose ability or academic achievement gives them other professional career opportunities are willing to spend so many years performing mechanical, undemanding duties which consume a large part of a recruit's time in most police departments," the report said.

Quinn Tamm, executive director of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), put the issue this way when he asked a group of businessmen at a seminar last year:

"Could you, as the father of a present or future college graduate, conscientiously recommend he enter a profession where the entrance pay averages approximately $5,500 to $6,500 annually . . . where he must endure the malignment of 'police brutality,' 'dumb cop,' and even more unmentionable terms, where he must live with imminent threat of physical abuse or death from the demented, the misguided, or the malcontent?"

Arthur F. Brandstatter, director of the Michigan State University School of Police Administration and Public Safety, believes police departments should raise their standards and carry out "vigorous recruiting on college campuses." He cites the experience of Berkeley, Calif.

After failing repeatedly to meet hiring quotas, the Berkeley Police Department raised its educational requirement from a high school diploma to 2 years of college and turned to the campus as a source of recruits. The new approach ended the city's chronic shortage of qualified police candidates. Before the qualifications were raised the Berkeley police were able to hire only 1 of every 100 candidates; after the standards were raised the ratio jumped to 10 out of 100.

"Youngsters from college today are more interested in social issues than ever before," Brandstatter said. "They are interested in serving their communities. To get their fair share of these people, police departments will have to be brought up to date. Their entire structure will have to be changed to challenge and attract able young people."

Brandstatter noted that the more progressive police forces have reduced to 1 year the time a recruit is required to serve as a patrolman. And some departments are beginning to bring trained people directly into technical positions without requiring any service as a patrolman.

Robert Borkenstein, chairman of Indiana University's Department of Police Administration, also feels police recruiting is hampered by an outmoded but widespread insistence that every member of the force must start as a patrolman.

"In most organizations it is impossible for anyone to enter except as a patrolman," he pointed out. "Trained or educated people usually can't hope to go in and apply their specialties to police work. This system perpetuates mediocrity."

"You can imagine the in-breeding, the compromises" that are forced on a potential police chief under a policy that requires him to rise from the ranks, Borkenstein said. He called for an influx of new talent and new experience drawn from the community at large to offset the "clannishness and extreme conservatism" that characterize many police departments.

Borkenstein, who served 22 years with the Indiana State Police, said greater use of modern technology not only would improve police efficiency but also would attract better qualified people. "The job challenge has not kept pace with a contemporary society, and qualified people, who need a challenge, are not attracted to police work," he contended.

Police recruiting problems are primarily a matter of economics, according to David McCandless, director of the Southern Police Institute at the University of Louisville.

"Historically, it has been difficult to find qualified police applicants except during a depression or recession," he said. "During hard times young men are willing to join the police department because it offers security and a good pension plan."

McCandless pointed out that most local governments have trouble filling all types of jobs, not just police positions, because pay and fringe benefits have not kept pace with the Federal Government and private industry.

Standards Questioned

Although proposals to raise academic qualifications for police have broad support, there have been suggestions that by lowering certain standards, particularly educational requirements and reliance on written tests, police departments could strengthen their undermanned forces and attract more men from minority groups. This view could gain backing as a result of a recent study done by the University of Chicago under a Department of Justice grant. The study found that a Negro policeman who scores lower on a test than a white policeman may make just as good an officer.

The final report on the study says that both Negroes and whites possess the qualities that make a good patrolman, but a straight comparison of the test scores of both groups might obscure that fact.

Police experts in Washington, D.C., said the results of the study might provide a reply to those police recruiters who say they would hire Negro patrolmen if they could find qualified ones. The report's findings were based on a series of ability and psychological examinations administered to Chicago policemen who volunteered for the project and a subsequent evaluation of their performance records.

The study showed that the qualities that make a good patrolman are similar to the qualities that make a good first-line supervisor in private industry.

The training given police recruits differs considerably, depending on the locality and size of the department. Thirty-eight States now have minimum training standards. The standards are not uniform from State to State, but every police department within a State that has training standards must meet its State's minimum requirements. The IACP would like to see every State establish minimum training standards.

Local police departments, beset by manpower shortages and often strapped financially in their efforts to upgrade their technology, now can look to Uncle Sam for help under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. The act, the first substantial program of Federal financial aid to local police agencies, does not give the Federal Government any control over local law enforcement. It makes funds available to State, county, and local police forces to be used as they see fit in such areas as recruiting, administration and planning, training and education, and research and development of equipment.

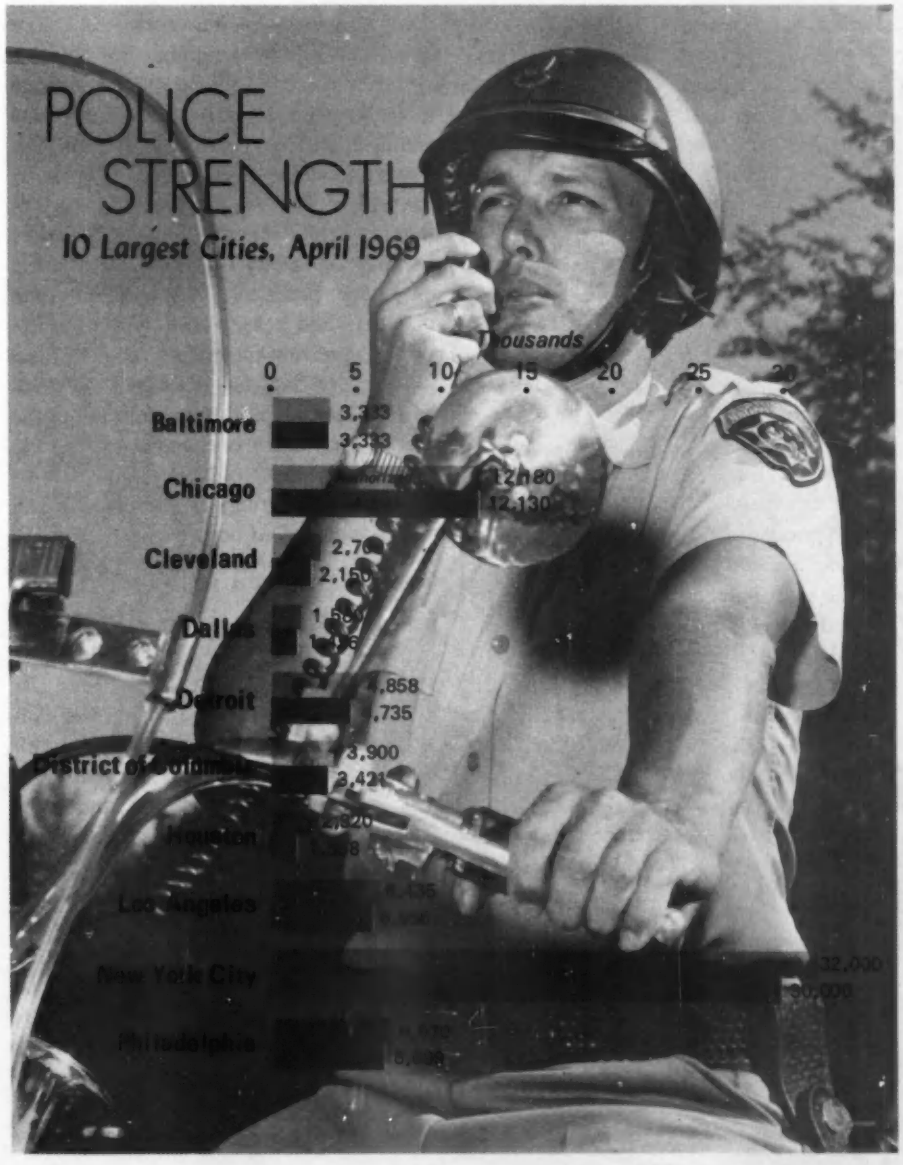
Of the $63 million made available in fiscal 1969, $6.5 million was earmarked to pay for college-level study by law enforcement personnel and students planning careers in law enforcement. The money was awarded to almost 500 colleges and universities which, in turn, make grants and loans to students. Eventually, some 1,800 institutions are expected to participate in this program.

The program works this way: Full-time students enrolled in college programs related to law enforcement are eligible for loans up to $1,800 a year. Persons already in police work who take academic leave from their jobs to pursue a degree are given special consideration. The loan to the student is cancelled at the rate of 25 percent for each subsequent year of full-time service he spends in law enforcement.

The program also underwrites grants of up to $200 per academic quarter or $300 a semester for tuition and fees of police personnel enrolled in degree programs related to law enforcement. The grants do not have to be repaid, but the recipients are obliged to remain in law enforcement work for 2 years after they complete their courses. Should the recipient of a grant fail to honor his commitment, he must repay the grant in full.

The Crime Control Act also calls for establishment of a National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. The institute will be a national center for research on the causes and prevention of crime and will be staffed by scientists, scholars, technicians, and law enforcement experts. Institute projects are expected to include such diverse areas as advanced communications systems, crime deterrence, riot prevention techniques, alarm devices, behavioral research into criminal activity, crime laboratory techniques, personnel selection and performance, crime patterns and statistics, and correctional procedures. In addition to its own activities, the institute will give research and development grants covering up to 100 percent of costs to State and local governments, colleges and universities, private firms, and professional organizations.

Creation of the institute, says the IACP's Quinn Tamm, "will permit law enforcement to enter the 20th century and prepare for the 21st—developments long overdue."



REACHING OUT FOR

The drive to bring Negroes and other minorities into the highly skilled trades and crafts through apprenticeship has entered a new phase. The practices and traditions of centuries that determined who would be apprentices are disintegrating. The preponderance of Swedish carpenters, Italian stonemasons, Irish bricklayers, German machinists, English cabinetmakers, and others is giving way to the polyglot of national and racial segments that make up America. The tight, private-club atmosphere of guild-inspired craft unions which handed down precious skills from grandfather to father to son or nephew is disappearing. Perhaps the most visible evidence of the changed climate is the Apprenticeship Outreach Program —a partnership effort of organized labor, human rights groups, and the Federal Government now underway in many of the Nation's major job markets to seek out and prepare Negroes, Spanish-speaking Americans, and Indians for apprenticeship entry into one segment of the trades, the construction occupations.

The total number of apprentices in the United States is by no means overwhelming. And those from minority groups represent less than 7 percent of the total. But both numbers are growing rapidly. On January 1, 1967, there were 207,500 apprentices registered with U.S. Department of Labor or State apprenticeship agencies, including some 9,300 minority apprentices (4.5 percent). Two years later there were 240,000 registered apprentices, including 15,600 minorities (6.5 percent). The increase in minority participation in the 2-year period was 68 percent.

Increased participation by Negro youth was even greater. On January 1, 1967, there were about 4,200 Negroes in apprenticeship (2.3 percent). Two years later there were 9,400, or 3.9 percent of the total number of apprentices. The rise in Negro participation in the 2-year period was 120 percent.

These gains were made while the total number of registered apprentices increased during the same period by 16 percent, an excellent growth rate in itself compared to preceding years.

A considerable number of current minority apprentices were placed through the Outreach Program, most of them through the efforts of the Workers Defense League and the Urban League. By the end of 1968, after almost 2 years of Apprenticeship Outreach efforts financed partially or wholly with U.S. Department of Labor funds, 2,325 minority group members had been placed in apprenticeship programs in the building trades alone.

In Cleveland, for example, Outreach has brought 71 black apprentices into the sheet metal, iron work, and pipe trades—occupations that the 1966 Civil Rights Commission hearings in Cleveland found virtually closed to nonwhites.

Drive Launched in '63

The Department of Labor launched a major effort in 1963 to break down segregation in the apprenticeable trades. As one of the first steps, the Manpower Administration in June 1963 began establishing Apprenticeship Information Centers in key job markets throughout the United States. The purpose of these centers was to provide an easily accessible source of information, guidance, and counseling concerning apprenticeship opportunities, particularly to minority youth, who usually had no knowledge that such openings existed. By early 1969, centers were located in 36 cities in 22 States. As a surprising but welcome side benefit to the centers' information activities, nearly 13,000 youth, 2,200 from minority groups, have been placed in apprenticeship programs.

A major action to open up apprenticeship was taken December 13, 1963, when the Secretary of Labor signed a regulation (title 29, C.F.R., Part 30) requiring nondiscrimination in the selection of apprentices and in the conduct of apprenticeship and training programs seeking Federal registration.

The regulation called for selection of apprentices "without regard to race, creed, color, national origin, sex, or occupationally irrelevant physical requirements."

The Department's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT) was given the task of enforcing the regulation. In order to be in compliance, the great majority of program sponsors had to adopt the regulations as part of their apprenticeship standards.

By June 1966, the BAT had secured compliance from every State apprenticeship agency and all but a handful of the joint apprenticeship committees. But compliance with the regulation and improvement in minority participation were two different things. The regulation, which required affirmative action, did not have any "teeth."

Program sponsors adhered to the letter of the regulations and let the matter stand that way. Minorities were not applying and those that were could not pass the exams.

"Let them, anyone, come to us," was the attitude of apprenticeship program sponsors. "Our doors are open and we will give anyone a fair shake."

To make the regulation really effective, Labor Department officials entered into a series of protracted negotiations with the building trades unions and in February 1968 a major breakthrough was achieved. President C. J. Haggerty of the AFL-

APPRENTICES

CIO's Building and Construction Trades Department, representing 18 international unions with 3.5 million members, announced that, in cooperation with management, the unions would:

- Actively recruit qualified applicants for apprenticeship among Negroes and other minorities.
- Provide instruction where necessary so that Negroes and other minorities could qualify for apprenticeship.

The AFL-CIO unit also endorsed Apprenticeship Outreach and urged its support by local unions.

The building trades unions have taken steps to live up to their pledges. Local AFL-CIO building trades councils are sponsoring Outreach programs in 14 of the 48 cities where such projects are underway. Members of craft unions are deeply involved as well with such groups as the Workers Defense League and the Urban League in most of the other cities where Apprenticeship Outreach programs are being conducted. The BAT services the programs with technical assistance and training materials.

Breaking the Barriers

Outreach techniques were pioneered by the Workers Defense League (WDL) of New York City. The WDL, a human rights organization, was founded nearly 30 years ago to fight racial, economic, and political exploitation. Five years ago, it resolved to break the apprenticeship barrier in the construction trades, beginning in New York.

Obtaining a $35,000 grant in June 1964 from the Taconic Foundation (which ultimately gave it two more grants for a total of $120,000), the WDL set up

a store-front operation in the Bedford-Stuyvesant section of Brooklyn and hired a three-man staff to run it.

For their first project, the WDL recruited 20 Negro youngsters to take a qualifying test for the apprenticeship program of the Sheet Metal Workers Union. The youngsters were tutored for 2 weeks, but only one of the 20 qualified.

The WDL decided to develop a longer training program that would enable minority youth to make a better showing on entrance tests. The New York City Building and Construction Trades Council assisted in recruitment, instruction, and placement of the youth. The effort moved 75 such youth into apprenticeship in the first year. And 13 of 18 qualified for the sheet metal trade.

In December 1966, the WDL obtained the support of the A. Philip Randolph Education Fund to form a joint apprenticeship program to aid minorities. Ernest D. Green, one of the original staff members of the WDL's Bedford-Stuyvesant project, was named national director of the cooperative effort. The following month, the U.S. Department of Labor stepped in with an allocation of nearly $299,000 to give 4-week tutor and cram courses to 375 candidates in Buffalo, Cleveland, Newark, and New York. By the end of 1968, the WDL was operating projects in 10 eastern and southern cities and had placed 823 apprentices. Green now heads a staff of 61 people.

The WDL has had its problems. In 1967, a union local challenged the test results of 28 WDL-coached apprenticeship hopefuls who had competed with 160 others. Twenty-five of the WDL's proteges had scored among the top 30 on the test. The union wanted to give the tests over again because 2 of the 28 had scored 100 percent, something never done before. But the court ruled for the WDL and all 25 are now apprentices.

On the positive side, the WDL has established a pattern of cooperation between organized labor, contractors, civil rights organizations, and the general public that has become a model for such projects, which the Labor Department dubbed "Outreach."

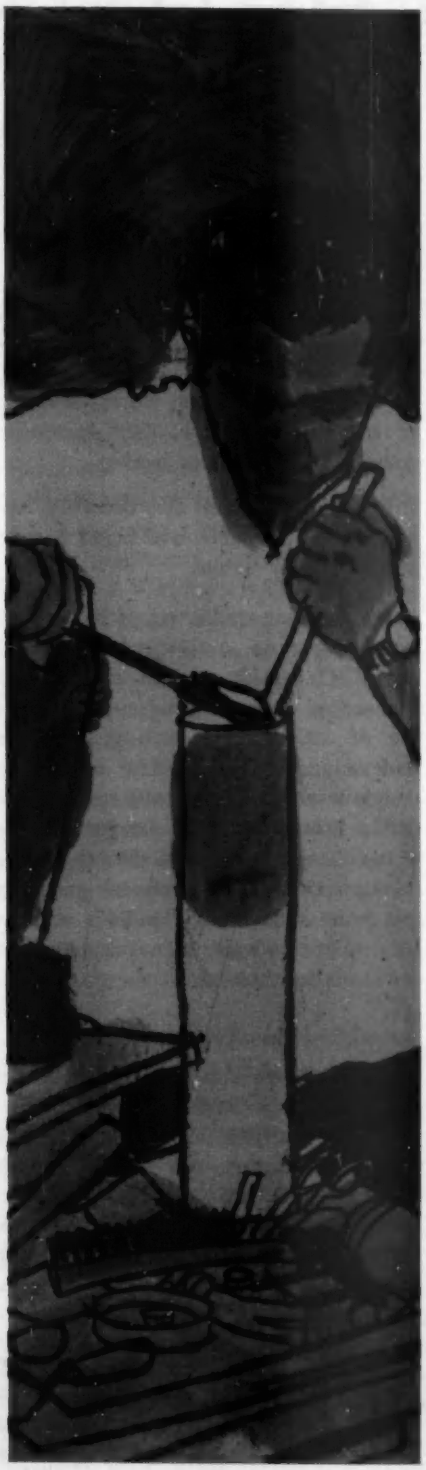
The WDL's training program usually involves 4 to 6 weeks of tutoring, 4 nights a week, 1½ to 2 hours a night. Candidates are taught how to handle aptitude tests. They are drilled in math, English, and physics and are told how to conduct themselves for the important interview that follows a successful written exam. Mock interview sessions help them successfully meet the requirements of apprenticeship committees, composed of union representatives and contractors.

Not for Everybody

Green is enthusiastic over the possibilities opening up to black men. One of his favorite stories is about a young Negro who was earning only $50 a week when recruited more than 3 years ago. He is now a sheet metal worker earning $6.50 an hour. And though the program isn't aimed exclusively at the hard-core unemployed, another story Green likes to tell concerns a former New York City welfare recipient. He was 26 and had a wife and four children when he joined Outreach. Now he is earning more than $4 an hour as a third-year steam fitter apprentice.

Apprenticeship, however, is not for everybody. In recent years, the number of apprentices registered annually has exceeded 85,000. Less than half survive the 2- to 6-year training terms and become journeymen. Apprenticeship traditionally has been a skill training system designed to turn out craftsmen capable of expertly doing any job in their respective trades. Every craft or trade sets entrance standards and insists on good performance during the apprenticeship term.

Educational requirements for entering the skilled trades are mixed. About half of the apprenticeable occupations registered with the BAT list a high school



diploma or its equivalent as an entry qualification, a requirement that tends to bar many Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Mexican Americans. Green says his organization is "not trying to knock down the high school requirement" where it exists. Although he believes more apprentice jobs ought to be made available, Green's goal at this stage is only to get minorities a larger share of the limited openings that exist now.

An example of what can be accomplished by a realistic adjustment of educational requirements occurred late last year in Newark. A cooperative effort involving the city of Newark, Painters Union District Council 10, the BAT, and the New Jersey Civil Service Department resulted in the waiving of both educational requirements and the written test for painter apprentices employed by the city. A performance test was made the basis for acceptance as a painter apprentice.

The action made it possible for disadvantaged Spanish-speaking youths to become painter apprentices. Behind the change in requirements was the fact that the Newark Housing Authority badly needed skilled painters while the city's ghetto teemed with unemployed Puerto Ricans. Journeymen painters working for the city earn $10,300 a year.

Newark's Painters Union District Council 10 has been a leader in getting minority youth into apprenticeship. Although minority groups account for 63 percent of the city's population, 90 percent of Council 10's apprentices are minorities.

Outreach projects conducted by the Urban League and the building trades are having the same kind of success as those sponsored by the WDL. By the end of December, the Urban League was active in 20 cities and had moved 829 men into apprentice training.

Dallas is one of the 13 cities where local building trades councils are conducting Outreach programs. In its first 11 months, the Dallas project brought 87 Negroes, six Mexican Americans, and six Indians into the construction industry, more than twice as many apprentices as its year-long $45,000 contract with the Labor Department called for. They are training in 15 trades, nearly half as carpenters, ironworkers, and bricklayers. Among the 99 were unemployed ghetto residents, some who had held only menial jobs and had poor educational backgrounds, as well as high school graduates. The Labor Department estimates that when they become journeymen, they will earn an average annual wage of $10,000 plus fringe benefits.

Typical Operation

The Dallas operation is typical of what is required for a successful Apprenticeship Outreach project. It also demonstrates the close degree of cooperation needed among unions, contractors, civil rights activists, and Government officials to make Outreach work.

The staff of three is headed by O. S. Witt, former bricklayer, owner of a masonry company, and for 25 years a teacher in apprenticeship schools. His assistant director, John McKee, a Negro, is a former member of the Laborers Union. The third member is Bertha Smith, an experienced general construction office secretary.

Helping them in a variety of ways has been a 15-member Advisory Council established by the Dallas Building Trades. Serving on the council are a Negro doctor who is also a member of the Dallas School Board, a Negro official of the U.S. Treasury Department, a Mexican American member of the Texas Employment Commission, employers, journeymen construction workers, and union business agents.

When the project opened for business in February 1968, applicants did not beat down the door. They had to be recruited

actively. "We discovered that personal contact and word of mouth did the job as well as any method we have tried," Witt said. "Right now, I have an oldtimer, a shoeshine man, distributing our business cards to all the young fellows he knows and meets up with."

McKee, who has a vast acquaintanceship with Dallas Negroes, called on schools to enlist graduates who might qualify. He contacted churches and visited the homes of Negroes with large families. He admits to sometimes "just standing on street corners, waiting for likely prospects."

Getting applicants, however, was not the biggest hurdle. Witt found that the major problem was motivation.

Taking the Long View

"We have competition," he said. "In Dallas there are a lot of good paying jobs available in defense industries, such as aircraft and instrumentation. One of our jobs is to convince these lads that not all of these are peacetime jobs, and that the building and construction trades will be with us as long as there are people, come war or peace.

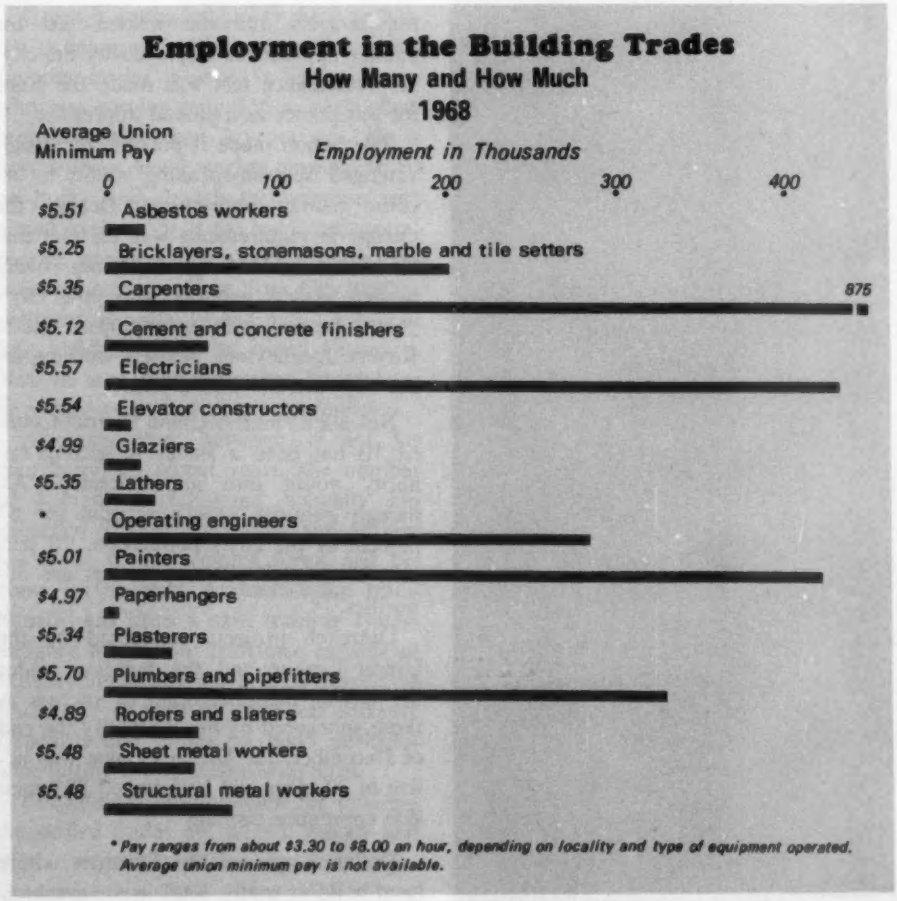
"Then there is the pay argument. What we've got to do is persuade these kids that, sure, apprentice pay may be lower, say, than an aircraft production worker's. But after 3 or 4 years of apprentice training they'll be making $8,000 to $12,000 a year."

But the problems have been overshadowed by the accomplishments. Word-of-mouth promotion by youth in the program has made recruiting easier. Racial barriers have come down. Unions and contractors have not only accepted the program but are cooperating actively to make it a success.

A new element—skill upgrading—was added to Apprenticeship Outreach last May by the WDL when it got a $114,225 contract from the Department of Labor to upgrade 50 construction workers in Buffalo. All 50 were men with nonunion construction experience but no formal apprenticeship training. Applicants train for 28 weeks to gain full membership in the appropriate building trades unions. The Labor Department has approved three more projects at a cost of nearly $1.2 million to upgrade 460 journeymen trainees.

Upgrading and apprenticeship training for minority workers is destined to play an important role in the Model Cities Program. Model Cities legislation requires projects to provide maximum opportunity for employment of residents in target areas.

In January, Boston qualified for a $7.7 million Model Cities grant as part of an overall city rebuilding program. Green and his staff are mobilizing a program there to qualify 150 journeymen and 50 apprentices for union membership. All 200 live in the city's Urban Housing area and Model Cities neighborhoods and the $238,208 contract awarded for their training by the Labor Department represents the Nation's first Federal program to enable local people to rebuild their own neighborhoods. Signing the contract for Boston were, in addition to the Workers Defense League, the Community Development Corporation of Boston and the Boston AFL-CIO Building Trades Council.



Labor unions, contractors, and city officials have agreed to give priority in hiring to target area residents who will work side by side with experienced craftsmen. The Associated General Contractors of Massachusetts and the Building Trades Employers Association of Eastern Massachusetts have committed themselves to support the stipulation that all Model Cities contractors must cooperate with the training program before they are awarded building contracts.

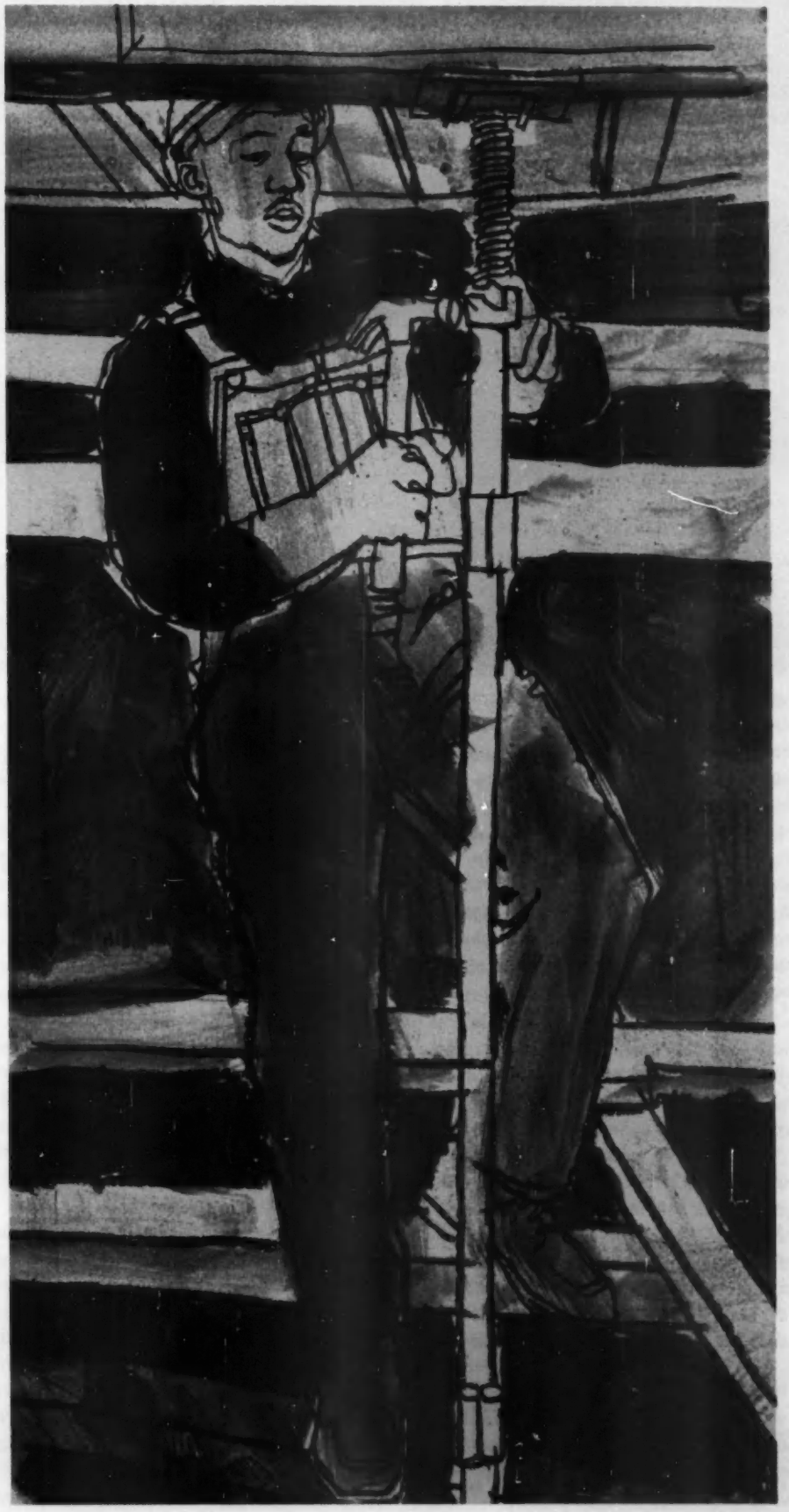
Alternate Routes

Green and his staff are creating four channels for entry of the 200 area residents into union membership:

- Apprenticeship Outreach and training for 50 youths.
- Journeyman status for workers whose nonunion construction experience qualifies them as journeymen.
- Journeyman training for workers with some construction experience but not enough to qualify them for full journeyman status.
- Individually tailored training and work-experience for workers above apprenticeable age who lack construction experience, to prepare them for entry at the journeyman level.

Green's philosophy in working to get Negroes into jobs that were once closed to them was summed up in a speech he made in 1967 to the Arkansas State AFL-CIO. He said:

"My presence here is a reminder that the Negro, by himself, can take his own revolution only so far and no further—that by himself he can fight for better public education, desegregated public facilities, and voting rights, but beyond those points he can go no further without the active, willing, and energetic cooperation of a larger coalition of forces, the chief element of which must be the trade union movement."



JOBS AND GOALS IN THE 70'S

Is American production becoming so efficient that the country is faced with the prospect of mass unemployment or underemployment?

An independent study funded by the Manpower Administration concludes that the Nation would be more likely to face a shortage of manpower than a surplus by 1975 if it were to pursue vigorously 16 national goals affecting most aspects of American life. The study maintains that growth in resources or development in technology probably would be unable to fully offset the increased manpower needed to achieve all the goals.

The study, *Manpower Requirements for National Objectives in the 1970's*,[1] was undertaken by Dr. Leonard A. Lecht of the National Planning Association (NPA).

Employment opportunities in individual occupations are influenced significantly by the objectives the Nation chooses to pursue, the study states. Assignment of priorities in a democracy is determined by the decisions of consumers, firms, and trade unions, and by legislation enacted at all levels of government. It is not done by government fiat. The study was not designed to assess the desirability or advisability of pursuing certain objectives, but rather to provide information on the costs involved and the manpower needed to reach specific levels of achievement on a wide range of matters of national importance.

Fifteen of the goals covered in the study were first considered in 1960 in the report of the President's Commission on National Goals. The sixteenth goal, space exploration, was added in 1961.

The areas of concern designated as goals in the NPA study include almost every sector of the private and public economy—agriculture, area redevelopment, consumer expenditures and savings, education, health, housing, international aid, manpower retraining, national defense, natural resources, private plant and equipment, research and development, social welfare, space, transportation, and urban development.

Each goal is discussed in terms of the manpower and money that would be needed to achieve it.

The simultaneous achievement by 1975 of all 16 goals covered in the study would require a gross national product of $1.16 trillion in 1963 prices. Even if the U.S. maintains a virtually full-employment economy with a growth rate averaging 4.5 percent a year, its GNP by 1975 would fall about $150 billion short. Thus, according to the study, even the world's wealthiest society would lack the resources to achieve all of the cited objectives at the same time.

Consistent with this finding, the U.S. would need more manpower than is expected to be available in 1975. The study assumes that labor productivity will, in line with postwar trends, rise at slightly more than 3 percent a year. Full achievement of the 16 goals would require an employed civilian labor force of more than 100 million, or about 10 million more than expected. Under these conditions, the study says, the major manpower problems would be better education and job training, better use of the available work force, and improved worker mobility.

The study suggests the establishment of priorities to determine what objectives will have first claim on the Nation's human and economic resources. And it points out that if top priorities are given to health, social welfare, housing, and urban development, serious manpower bottlenecks could occur unless steps are taken soon to expand education and training efforts. Otherwise there will not be enough qualified people in these fields.

To achieve the health goal, for example, about 18,000 more doctors would be needed each year. American medical schools are expected to graduate only about 8,750 annually between now and 1975. Fulfilling the social welfare goal would call for an average annual increase of nearly 20,000 social workers. The supply is increasing now by about only 5,000 a year. The urban development goal would create a need for 7,000 more carpenters each year. The number of carpenters actually decreased by 50,000 between 1957 and 1965.

The NPA study says a manpower shortage could help the disadvantaged by spurring efforts to open up jobs and training to people who have not shared equitably in our economy. At least some of the effects of the bottlenecks could be reduced by making better use of nonwhites, women, the handicapped, and older workers, the study says. It says the Nation is losing as much as $20 billion a year in potential production because of employment discrimination and the poorer educational opportunities available for Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Spanish Americans, and Indians.

To reach the educational objectives, the study estimates the Nation would need 1 million more elementary and secondary school teachers by 1975, including 140,000 nonwhites. The health goal would involve the employment of 500,000 more professional nurses, of whom 60,000 would be nonwhite. Meeting the health goal also would open up large numbers of job opportunities in service occupations related to medical care, including a need for more than 980,000 additional hospital attendants and practical nurses, of whom more than 200,000 would be nonwhite.

The study also notes that if members of minority groups have their fair share of engineers and scientists by 1975, they could meet two-thirds of the projected shortage of 300,000 workers in these two professions. It is estimated that rebuilding the Nation's cities would directly or indirectly create jobs, many of them skilled, for 10 million more people by 1975, 1 million of them nonwhite.

The study says that a far-reaching effort would have to be made by Government, employers, and trade unions to enlarge educational and training programs and strike down racial barriers in employment to pave the way for Negroes and other minorities to take advantage of these emerging opportunities. Improved use of these segments of our work force would increase substantially the Nation's capacity to achieve whatever goals it decides to pursue, the study points out.

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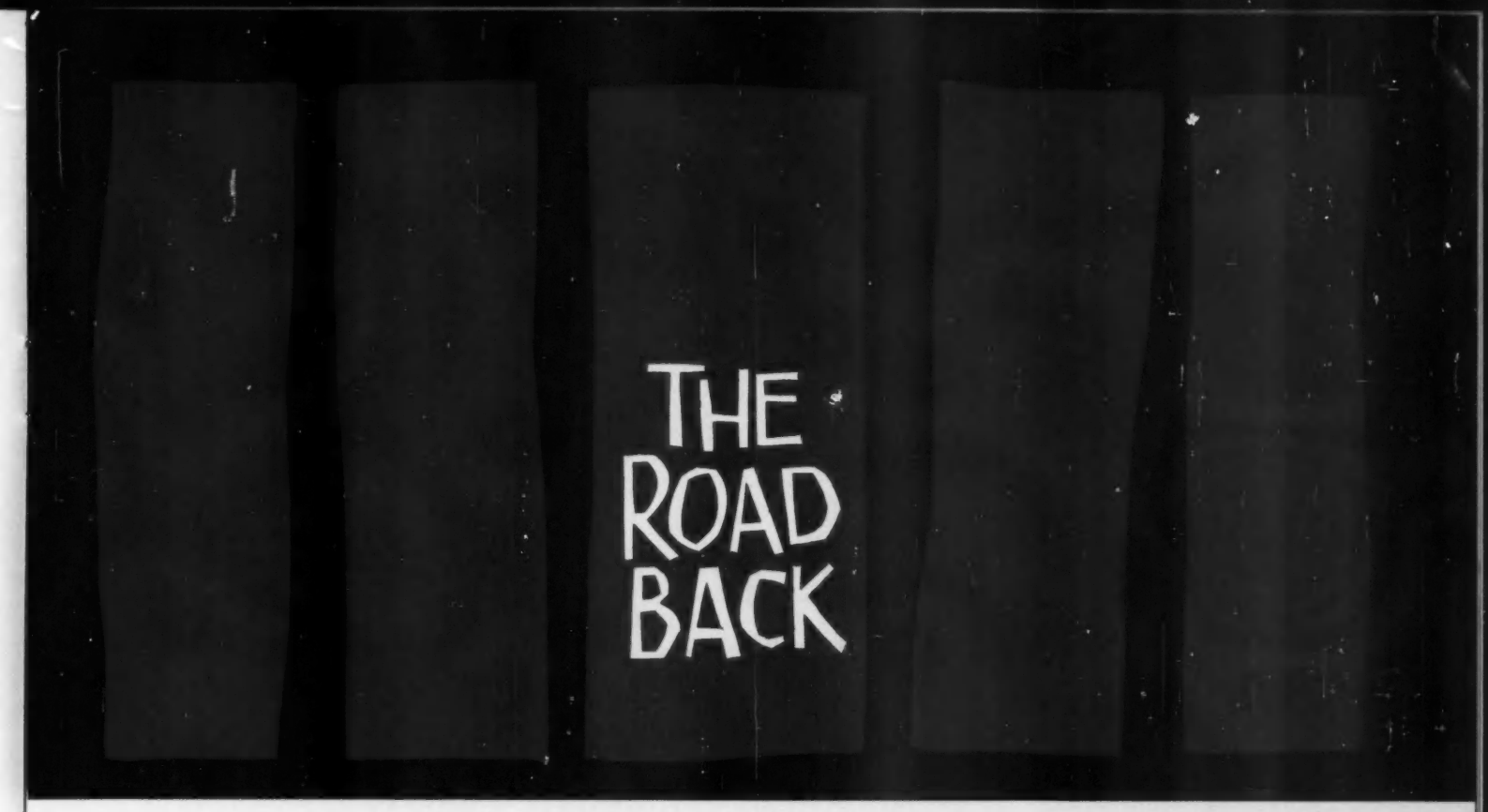
[1] *Manpower Requirements for National Objectives in the 1970's* is available from the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, Springfield, Va., 22151, for $3 for a paper copy and 65 cents for microfiche (specify accession number PB-177821). The study is the basis of a new book, *Manpower Needs for National Goals in the 1970's*, published by Frederick A. Praeger.



Take an 11th grade dropout who at 22 has already been booted out of the Navy and convicted of embezzlement twice and second degree forgery once. Can he be rehabilitated in prison?

At Draper Correctional Center in Elmore, Ala., it is possible. A young man answering that description entered Draper in February 1965. He is now out of prison, happily married, has a son, and is earning up to $200 a week as a barber.

No miracles were involved in his case, or in those of the other men similarly helped by an experimental program at the 600-inmate institution. A well conceived plan and hard, grinding work by prison officials and the Rehabilitation Research Foundation, account for the favorable results obtained by the project.

The 4-year demonstration, funded by the U.S. Department of Labor, which ended last August enrolled 392 convicts on a voluntary basis, ranging in age from 16 to 44 years. The median age was 24.5. Seventeen percent were Negroes. More than 90 percent were school dropouts, and about 90 percent had no vocational skill or training.

The Draper project showed that a balanced program of counseling, job training, supportive services, education, job development and placement, and follow-up can help convicts obtain work after they are released and avoid becoming repeat offenders.

Of the 392 men enrolled, 331 completed the program. Fifty-seven waived early parole to complete training. Of the 290 "graduates" who were followed up, 276 had been placed in jobs, all but 38 at a trade they learned in prison. Seventy percent of the 392 trainees in the program had been in jail at least once before. Among 200 released trainees followed up for a year or more, the rate of repeat offenders dropped to 30 percent.

The Draper experiment throws some light on the pitfalls and possibilities of rehabilitating convicts. It reveals that the first priority in making any plan successful is to secure the wholehearted cooperation of correctional officials. Also, it shows that job training alone is not enough. A whole array of support services is needed, as it is to get any other disadvantaged person back on his feet. And finally, the outside community must be involved.

"Unless the warden understands—not just cooperates, but really understands—what you're trying to do, you're dead," said Dr. John M. McKee, director of the Draper project and executive director of the sponsoring Rehabilitation Research Foundation. "Without the warden's understanding, you are a satellite and you'll remain on the fringes of prison life. We are in on staff meetings, and we plan and carry out programs together with prison officials. We are at the heart of the correctional process, and that's the main reason we've been successful. This warden understands the theory and the process of this project and participates in decision-making."

The warden, John C. Watkins, 43, holds a degree in sociology from the University of Alabama and has been warden of Draper since 1958. His studies and observations long ago convinced him that the discipline and psychotherapy used in most prisons were relatively ineffective. Since 1961 he has spent a great deal of time working with leaders of the inmates. He believes this effort to penetrate the prison subculture is the key to any significant communication between the prisoner and outsiders.

Watkins believes that the habitual criminal usually is an emotionally immature man. Most often he joined a gang in his teens, but, unlike normally developing boys, he never outgrew the attachment.

THE ROAD BACK

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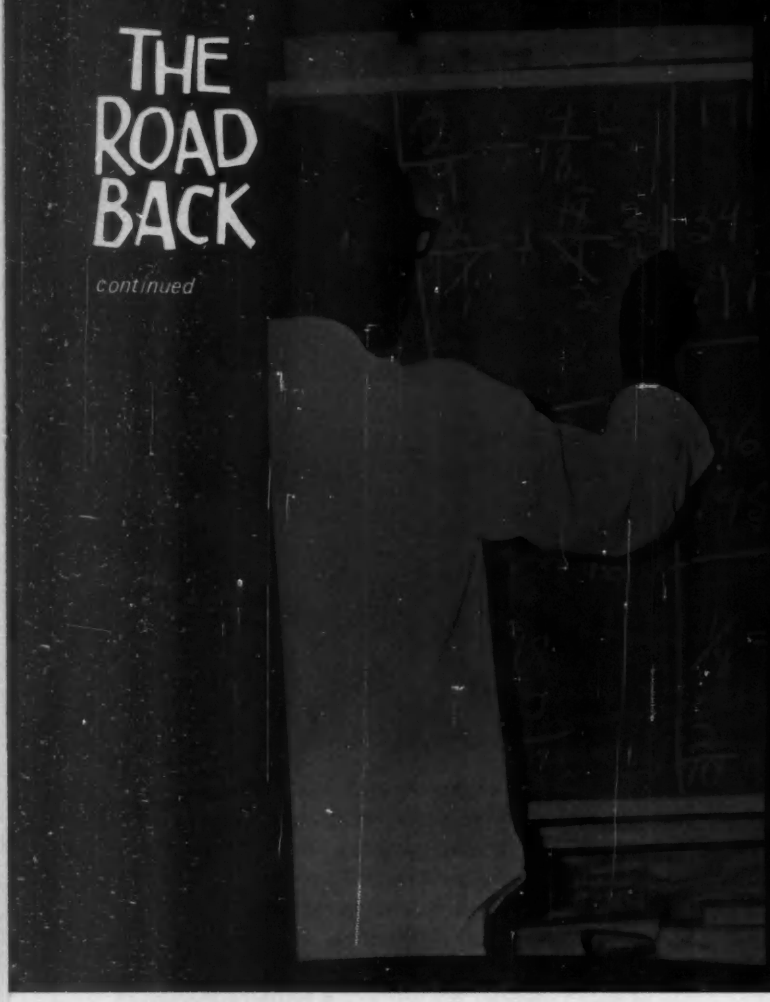


Inmate instructors teach other prisoners basic subjects such as math and English.

Barber trainees at Draper practice on each other and on other inmates.

Welder trainees

He had poor family support, his emotional growth was stunted, he dropped out of school, learned to carry on various criminal activities, and wound up in jail.

In most correctional institutions he encounters a substitute for the street gang he knew—an inmate social system, dominated and perpetuated by strong leaders, which is, in fact, an extension of the criminal subculture outside the institution. So he never really grows up.

Watkins decided to work individually with prisoners in an attempt to redirect their demonstrated capacity for loyalty and adherence to a code of behavior.

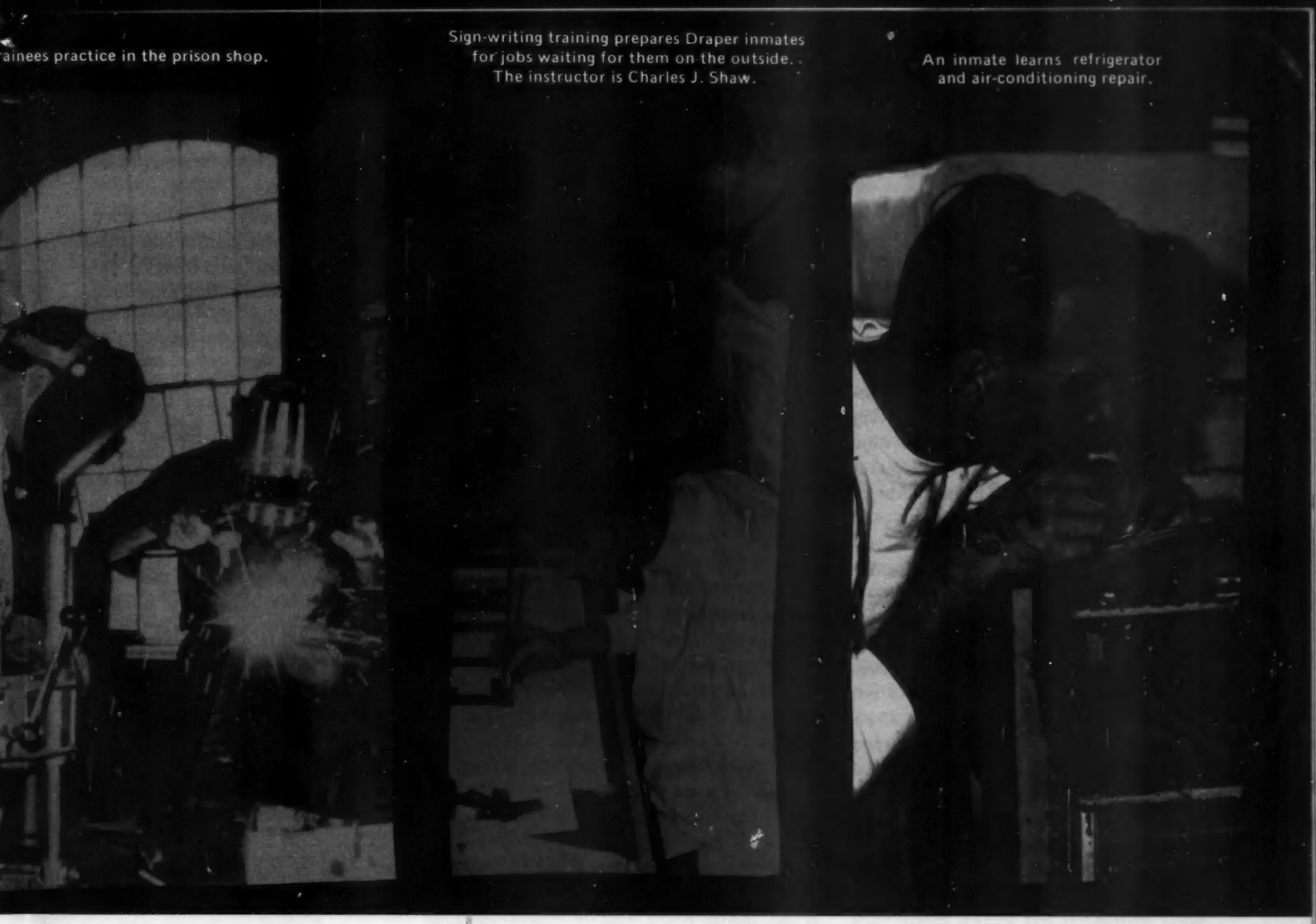
He felt that, if the leaders could be identified and won over, other prisoners would become more amenable to constructive influences such as education and job training.

Dr. McKee, who was director of Alabama's Division of Mental Hygiene at the time, began a pilot project at Draper in 1961 to test the effect of a flexible but carefully planned course of instruction (called programed instruction) on a small group of inmates. The following year, the National Institute of Mental Health gave Dr. McKee a grant to broaden his experiment and he resigned his position with the Division of Mental Hygiene to become full-time director of the Draper project. His early experimental work convinced Dr. McKee that programed instruction could be adapted to vocational training and speed up the process. Programed instruction was a key part of Dr. McKee's proposal in 1964 when he applied for and received a Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) experimental and demonstration grant from the Labor Department to conduct a job training and placement project at Draper.

One of the striking innovations at Draper has been the formation of the "college corps." Twenty-five undergraduates and graduates were recruited from 10 colleges and universities in five States to assist the project staff in the critical areas of guidance, counseling, and education. They worked an average of one semester each in the project, were paid salaries, and received college credit for their services.

Many of the corpsmen and inmates became friends. And in some instances inmates began viewing the college students rather than convict leaders as models to emulate. They began to see that education might be the route to success. For their part, most of the students have gone into, or plan to enter, professions directly related to their work at Draper.

Counseling also involved some innovative features. The three-man counseling staff was too small for the intensive needs of the trainees. The remainder of



rainees practice in the prison shop.

Sign-writing training prepares Draper inmates for jobs waiting for them on the outside. The instructor is Charles J. Shaw.

An inmate learns refrigerator and air-conditioning repair.

the staff of 40 and the students were encouraged to lend a hand, after first receiving some instruction from the consulting clinical psychologist. Unfortunately, the counseling office reminded some of the inmates of the interrogation room of a city or county jail and they tried to avoid it. Counseling therefore took place anywhere it was convenient, in semiprivate offices, in the prison yard, in hallways, and in shop areas and classrooms.

At first the counselors thought their sole task was to motivate the prisoners to strive toward self-improvement. That turned out to be only part of it. Mundane personal problems made insoluble for the prisoners by their isolation from society had to be cleared away before they could learn anything. Counselors spent a lot of time communicating with agencies that could help needy prisoners' families, getting social security cards and drivers' licenses for prisoners, and persuading families to visit or write the inmates.

Occupational training was established to prepare the prisoners for entry-level jobs as auto mechanics, service station attendants, barbers, bricklayers, appliance repairmen, welders, and sign writers. Course outlines were developed with the help of the State Division of Vocational Rehabilitation. Craftsmen turned instructors did most of the job training.

The occupational training was supported by basic and remedial education because many trainees were such poor readers they could not understand written instructions. Educational and instructional materials had to be adapted for the special needs of the trainees and some special materials had to be developed. In one occupational class, the educational level of the 80 prisoners ranged from the third grade to second year college. These characteristics emphasized the importance of tailoring an education program to meet the needs of the individual.

Inmates spent an average of 28 to 30 hours a week in occupational training and 10 to 12 hours in basic education. Many trainees resisted remedial education until they were convinced it was necessary for success in their occupation. A young man learning sign painting, for example, wanted to spend all his time in occupational training. But when his backwardness in English and arithmetic caused him to misspell words and ruin the proportions of his signs, he agreed to go back to the classroom and study.

Trainees gained an average of 1.4 grades on standard achievement tests after only 200 hours of instruction, with some advancing as much as 3.9 grades. Of 80 trainees who set out to earn high school equivalency degrees, 72 succeeded.

THE ROAD BACK

continued

Although there was only one job placement and development officer for every 60 to 90 trainees, 230 employers were persuaded to hire graduates. Job placement services included helping former inmates obtain employment bonds and giving them money to buy tools, relocate families, and cover other expenses until they received their first check.

Followup turned out to be an enormous problem, particularly as the number of released prisoners mounted. Many of the former trainees simply could not cope with the outside world alone. Their tendency to revert to old habits when difficulties arose resulted in parole violations. As a remedy, a full-time staff member was assigned full time to followup work and a second person was added to create a Community Sponsorship Program. This program was designed to involve individuals and service groups such as the Lions and the Jaycees in rehabilitation. It was partially successful; many individuals volunteered, and in Birmingham the Jaycees served as the community sponsor. But the followup counselor resigned, throwing the full burden of the effort on the man who was supposed to devote his attention to the Community Sponsorship Program. The use of other staff members and of parole officers throughout the State for followup, whenever they had the time, helped fill the gap.

The Nation's prisons need to make much more extensive use of vocational training related to the current labor market. "Possibly fewer than 5 percent of the people now in prisons and reformatories are receiving training for jobs they can continue when they get out," according to Charles S. Prigmore, former executive director of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. "Even the best correctional systems are giving only about 20 percent of their inmates usable job training." Yet an extensive survey of prison inmates by Dr. Daniel Glaser revealed that "learning a trade or in other ways preparing for a better job opportunity outside a prison was the first interest of most inmates. . . ."

The Department of Labor is now funding, through the MDTA, training programs for 3,100 inmates in prisons in 21 States at a cost of $3.5 million. Although the experimental program at Draper has ended, Dr. McKee is continuing his rehabilitation work there with funds obtained under the regular operating section of the MDTA. The Department's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT) is sponsoring apprenticeship programs at four prisons. At present, 70 inmates are enrolled and BAT is promoting more such projects.

It is extremely difficult to get an overall picture of job training programs for prison inmates. As the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice noted in its 1967 Task Force Report on Corrections: "There is at present no focal point in the Federal bureaucracy at which correctional services to State and local governments can be planned and coordinated." That continues to be the case.

The report noted that in 1967 nine Federal Government agencies were contributing funds and services to correctional institutions. The Labor Department, Office of Economic Opportunity, Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, and Office of Education were funding employment and education projects under the supervision of State and local authorities. Labor, the National Institute of Mental Health, the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, and the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance provided money for research, training, and demonstration. The Bureau of Prisons established standards for local jails used temporarily to house Federal prisoners. The Children's Bureau provided consultation services for juvenile programs. These were in addition to various State and local training projects.

The total prison population in the United States on any given day is estimated to be between 400,000 and 500,000 persons. About twice that number are on probation or parole. The annual operating budgets of the various Federal, State, and local prisons systems total more than $1 billion.

"Some jurisdictions have developed strong programs for the control and rehabilitation of offenders," according to the President's Commission. "But most lack capacity to cope with the problems of preventing recidivism—the commission of further offenses."

The Commission concludes that, "Institutional programing must point toward preparing the offender to reenter the community rather than isolating him from it, as has been predominantly the case in the past. . . . The ultimate goal of corrections under any theory is to make the community safer by reducing the incidence of crime. Rehabilitation of offenders to prevent their return to crime is in general the most promising way to achieve this end."

Although the Draper project has achieved excellent results, Dr. McKee and his staff know that much remains to be done to solve the enduring problem of prisoner rehabilitation. They point out that in their own program community involvement and followup could be strengthened and many of the barriers to employment of ex-convicts have not been overcome. In addition to their training program, they have established an "experimental manpower laboratory" to analyze their own efforts and other prison projects in an attempt to develop guidelines which would be generally applicable to the Nation's prison population.

Warden Watkins believes the rehabilitation work done at Draper has broad significance and applicability. He points with pride to the achievements so far and to a corrollary project called Program for Achievement of a College Education, which has sent 15 Draper inmates on to college. One, a manslaughter parolee, is now a graduate student at Ohio State.

"Dr. McKee and his crew are doing the most significant research and development in U.S. prisons today," he said. Watkins said the effect on Draper has been to make it "easier to run, easier to change the behavior of the inmates. The program should be expanded."

A 'SECOND CAREER' FOR OLDER WORKERS

By ARNOLD R. WEBER

Most discussions of older workers center on their problems. Being an older worker, however, has its assets as well as its liabilities. First, older workers have fully capitalized their investment in their own human resources. A man 45 or above, presuming he has spent a fair amount of time in gainful activity, has accumulated skills and built up a certain expertise in his trade or profession. His productivity is generally high.

Second, older workers have literally been through the mill. They have established habits of discipline and stability in the plant, indicated by lower absentee records, lower turnover rates, and other indexes of performance. In this connection, it is interesting to note that manpower programs spend a lot of money on work experience: Teaching a young person to get to a job on time, do what he is told with a reasonable amount of concern, and follow a task through to completion. In most instances, an older worker does not have to be taught these things and the employer does not have to pay the cost of teaching him to cultivate such habits of craftsmanship because he has picked them up along the way.

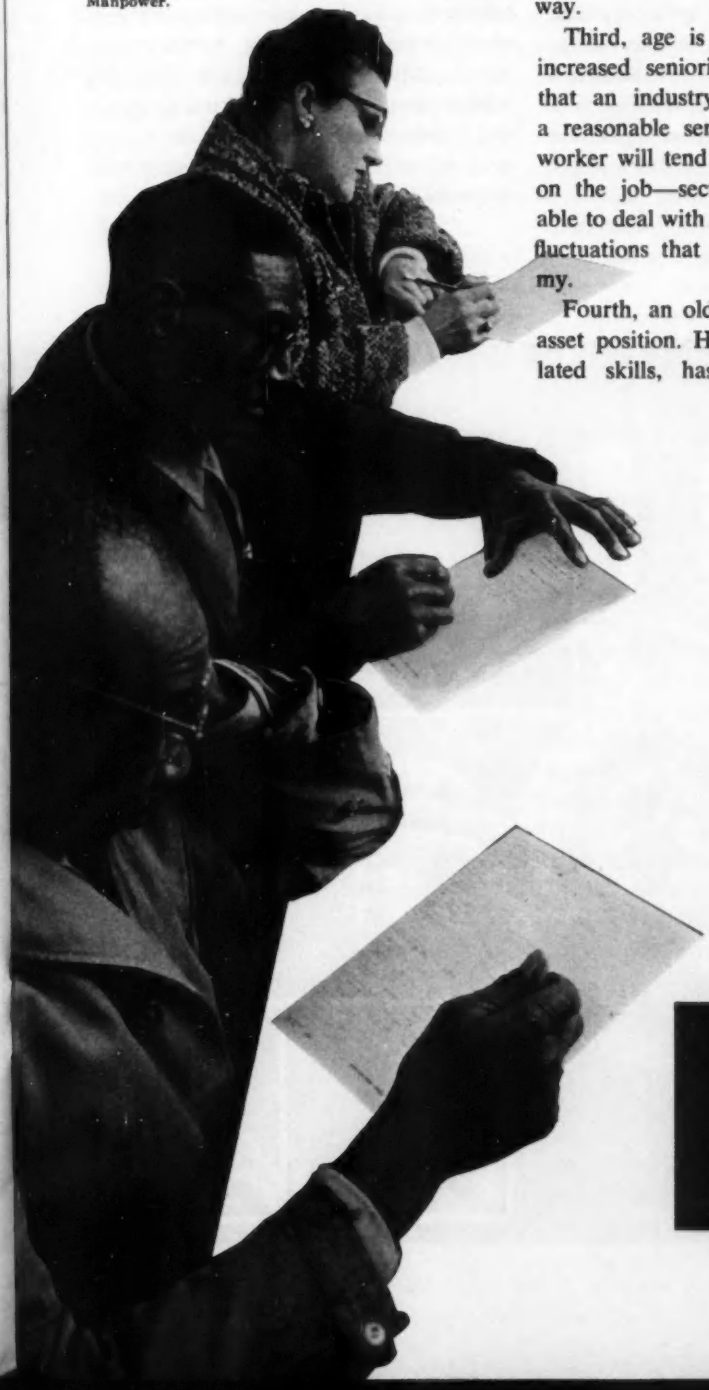
Mr. Weber is Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower.

Third, age is usually associated with increased seniority. And, to the extent that an industry is unionized and has a reasonable seniority clause, the older worker will tend to have greater security on the job—security in terms of being able to deal with the seasonal and cyclical fluctuations that characterize our economy.

Fourth, an older worker is in a better asset position. He has worked, accumulated skills, has greater stability and seniority, and is now at the stage where his high investment in domestic capital, so to speak, is diminishing. His children are grown and in school, and much of his income can now be used for either savings or the forms of consumption he views as preferable.

The advantages possessed by older workers are reflected in labor force statistics. In February 1969, the unemployment rate for young people was approximately 12 percent, while for the labor force as a whole it was 3.3 percent, and for workers 45 and over it was under 3 percent, well below the average. This low unemployment rate does not mean that older workers enjoy an invulnerable position in the labor market. There are offsetting elements of weakness or problems of adjustment which can be related specifically to older workers.

First is the process of aging and the consequent diminution of physical vigor. Obviously this is subject to considerable individual variation. Some people at 65 are very spry, jog 8 miles in the morning, and do their Canadian Air Force exercises in the afternoon. But the aging process generally is associated with the



gradual or accelerated loss of physical vigor. Usually this means lower productivity or potential productivity on specific jobs, particularly in highly intense machine-paced work. Anybody who has been in an automobile plant or is acquainted with any other production assembly operation is keenly aware of the combined erosive effects of work and time and age.

The second problem associated with an older worker is that, although he is apparently in a better position because he has invested a number of years in the accumulation of a particular skill, that investment may become a liability. If his skill becomes obsolete or a structural adjustment in the labor force causes him to lose his job, he pays a heavy price. Many older workers have a highly capitalized investment in certain skills. When changes in the economy come along, that investment is liquidated, and they are thrown into the labor market. Now they must find new skills which are usable in a changing labor market or take their skills to another area.

On that last point, of course, Adam Smith said that of all sorts of baggage, human beings are most difficult to transport, and the difficulties probably increase substantially with age. A person who is 45, 50, or 60 and who has a whole range of family relationships is less likely to pick up and move from Detroit to Kokomo in the event of a transfer of operations. Thus, the second major problem associated with older workers is their high degree of vulnerability to the forces of economic change, particularly as it imposes upon them the costs of obsolescence and structural shifts in the labor force.

The third problem of older workers relates to those who always have been marginal in the labor market—those who have held marginal jobs as material handlers or in the service industries—and have never really been in the heart of the labor market in terms of having a continuous occupational and industrial attachment. Young people can deal with these difficulties, but there probably is no one in as poor an economic position as an aging dishwasher, or an aging janitor. In short, if a worker is in a marginal position during his prime years, he tends to become more marginal as the process of aging takes place.

The fourth element or problem which creates special difficulties for older workers is the structure of some of our fringe benefits. One of the great achievements of collective bargaining and the trade union movement has been the building of pension plans and various forms of economic security into contracts as a matter of right. Since the Inland Steel Decision in 1950, there has been a revolution in the extension of pension and various forms of welfare plans to workers. But it is also true that when an older person loses his job and is looking for a new one, potential employers usually take into account how much of an extra burden he will be to the pension or welfare fund. To a certain extent these actuarial considerations militate against the hiring of older workers.

What are the implications in terms of policy of these four handicaps suffered by older workers?

One approach that should be considered, particularly in dealing with those who are characterized by a deterioration in their physical capacity, is the need for what might be called a "second career concept" within the firm. Some program should be designed by the employer to provide continuous training, particularly as employees pass the age of 35, to equip them with a parallel set of skills, or skills that are associated with those they already have. Thus, when their physical vigor and capability have declined to a point where they can't productively carry out their primary jobs, they could shift to other jobs, preferably within the same firm. In such a program, the production worker might become a production clerk and the process operator might become a laboratory aide.

In other words, these would be parallel careers, which are developed within the framework of a worker's early experience and which provide for some transferability of skills within the firm. Expanding the occupational versatility of aging workers will give them a fallback occupation when their productivity curve starts to drop perceptively, as it does for all of us at some stage or another. In many plants and in many occupations, this policy is carried out in an informal way. The "milk runs," the easy jobs, are often reserved for older workers.

More Retraining Needed

For older workers who are displaced, there clearly should be more intensive efforts at retraining and mobility. A very small proportion of training opportunities under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) have been allocated to older workers. The current figure is about 10 percent.

Clearly, many of the administrators of the program tend to give scarce resources to younger people, where the payout period is longer or where they feel there is a higher degree of success. Furthermore, older workers are reluctant to enter into retraining as extensively as younger workers. Nevertheless, the record is clear from actual experiences that in a training program both the completion and placement rates for older workers tend to be higher than the average, thanks to the sense of discipline they have developed and the accumulated skills to which they can relate their training.

This latter point is important. If the new trade is related to the basic occupation, retraining periods can be shortened considerably, to the advantage of both employer and employee. Among displaced meat packing workers in Fort Worth, Tex., railroad car repairmen were one of the groups hardest hit. An analysis of their work revealed that most of them knew how to carry out rough welds. They were sent to welding school and in a short time were able to perform watertight welds and from there moved on to heliarc or cold welds, skills needed by the aerospace industry in Fort Worth. Similarly, many of the people engaged in the butchering process were quickly trained as retail butchers. These are examples of building on established skills, a much more practical training procedure than one that would try to transform these craftsmen into chemical engineers.

A different plan is needed for workers who have spotty job records and little occupational attachment and whose vigor has declined to the point that their labor cannot be used profitably by private employers. These older citizens might be shifted from profitmaking enterprises to industries and occupations associated with social benefit.

Finally, more intensive services are needed to ease the process of job search and mobility for aging workers. Testing, counseling, and placement activities geared to their special needs should be stepped up. A greater effort must be mounted to make older workers aware of those industries most willing to hire them and to identify those occupations in which they still can function effectively.

The State employment services should have the technical capability of responding to the needs of older jobhunters as part of their regular work. There should be no presumptive bars or quotas established with respect to serving particular groups through MDTA and similar programs.

The emphasis in government training programs has been on younger workers, and that probably is necessary. But this emphasis has been a matter of strategy, rather than a built-in quota. Older workers should not be allocated a minimum or maximum number of training slots. We need flexibility so a program can be adapted to the needs of the labor market, which vary according to time and place.

Pension Adjustments

To advance and promote the second career concept, the Department of Labor might provide some form of technical assistance. However, the primary responsibility for building versatility into a person's occupational capability within a firm should lie with the firm itself and the union.

In terms of occupations with social benefits, the Department of Labor already has moved to make job opportunities available to the aging. We have the Green Thumb Program to beautify the countryside, which now involves $4.6 million and 2,000 jobs. We have invested more than $2 million in 13 cities in the Community Senior Service Corps. These and similar programs allow older people to use their accumulated skills and abilities to aid the community through public service projects.

The last element to be considered is fringe benefits. Whatever the accommodation is that has to be made in this area, it has to come essentially from private parties, unions, and management, based on the needs of the individuals affected and the structure of the particular pension and welfare plan involved.

In summary, we must recognize that there are various aspects of the labor market status of older workers which help them, but that these elements of strength also carry with them certain elements of vulnerability. Although the unemployment rate for senior workers is less than the national average, when they do lose their jobs they have a harder time finding new ones. Our task is to build a comprehensive manpower program capable of meeting the needs of these people as they develop.

The Government cannot solve all these problems. There is a limit to public resources. And some of the solutions, particularly development of second careers and adjustment of fringe benefits, require custom tailoring that can be done properly only by the private parties directly involved.

'Our task is to build a comprehensive manpower program capable of meeting the needs of these people as they develop.'

Fashioning Manpower Programs for Women

Forty years ago a young lady wishing to teach elementary school in a certain small town in North Carolina had to sign the following agreement:

"I promise not to go out with any young man except in so far as it may be necessary to stimulate Sunday school work.

"I promise to sleep 8 hours a night, to eat carefully, etc.

"I promise to remain in the dormitory or on the school grounds when not actively engaged in school or church work elsewhere.

"I promise not to fall in love or become engaged or secretly married."

Few women today, of course, would agree to such onerous job terms. And few people would expect them to.

Their skills and services are too important to the expanding American economy. Women make up 37 percent of the Nation's workers today. They are demanding, and under the law they are entitled to, equal treatment in the job market.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 bars employers engaged in interstate commerce from paying women employees less than men doing the same work. Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibits sex discrimination in hiring. A 1967 Executive order extends equal treatment to women in Federal employment and in employment by Federal contractors and subcontractors. Thirty-six States have some form of equal pay legislation; 15 States and the District of Columbia ban sex discrimination in their fair employment practices laws.

But even if the laws prohibiting job discrimination are observed to the letter, women will continue to have special employment problems—problems men don't have. A man who is head of a household normally does not have to worry about who will take care of the children while he is at work. A woman who is head of a household does.

A man 50 pounds overweight usually can get a job if he is otherwise qualified. An overweight woman often gets a polite refusal.

Many women with household responsibilities—including skilled professionals —would like to work part time. However, employers often are reluctant to arrange special hours for them.

Women with job skills who drop out of the labor market to raise families need to brush up on their occupational talents, or might even require retraining, before they can return to work. Women with little or no work experience who want to get jobs after their children are grown must acquire a marketable skill or settle for menial, low-paying employment.

Statistics document the employment problems of women. In 1968 the unemployment rate for women was 4.8 percent compared to 2.9 percent for men. For nonwhite women 16 years old and over, it was 8.3 percent; for nonwhite teenage girls, it was 28.8 percent.

Last year only 18 percent of women workers held professional or technical jobs, or were managers, officials, or proprietors. The comparable figure for men was 27 percent.

Income figures for 1966 show that 68 percent of all women who worked full time year-round earned less than $5,000, compared to 25 percent of men. At the other end of the pay scale, 1 of every 5 male workers earned $10,000 or more, while less than 2 of 100 women workers earned that much.

While many factors contribute to women's less advantaged place in the work force, one of the most prevalent is lack of marketable skills. A number of Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) projects are specially geared to help women in low-paying jobs upgrade their skills and move up the pay ladder. In January, 140 women in New York City received diplomas for the completion of a 15-month course that qualified them to move out of routine city hospital jobs and become licensed practical nurses.

Among the graduates was a 61-year-old grandmother and a grey-haired widow with eight children. The overall average age was 38. Most of the graduates had been in the city hospital system for

More than 14,000 women who left nursing jobs have been trained to return to the profession in Manpower Development and Training Act refresher courses.

A Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollee (top photo) trims a negative in the photo lab of the Veterans Administration Hospital in Syracuse, N.Y.

Through an MDTA program Sandra Bell (bottom photo) found a job and the will to lose 77 pounds. She is now a clerk-typist for the Treasury Department in Washington.

many years, working as kitchen helpers and nurse aides, jobs with beginning salaries of at least $1,000 a year below the $5,300 a year starting pay for practical nurses.

Money, however, was not the only incentive for the women completing the course. "We'll get more respect and courtesy," said one graduate.

Other MDTA projects are helping to meet the critical shortage of medical personnel while permitting older women with rusty skills and no recent work experience to reenter the labor force. Nurse refresher training courses, financed with MDTA funds and given at hospitals throughout the country, are one example. Lasting 4 to 6 weeks, these courses provide 180 hours of instruction in the latest medical techniques and machinery.

Former nurses, many of whom dropped out of the profession for 15 to 20 years to raise families, learn about changes in nursing education and services and trends in patient care. They are also briefed on new drugs and new surgical techniques that have been developed since they last practiced. Special emphasis is placed on diagnostic, obstetric. pediatric, chemistry, and clinical practices.

In a recent typical project at a Harrisburg, Pa., hospital, the average age of the 19 women taking the refresher course was 41 and they had been away from nursing an average of 14 years. All 19 completed the course; 12 are now in nursing jobs; four are going back to work full time this fall.

More than 14,000 nurses have been given refresher courses under MDTA. Altogether it has provided training in the health field for some 136,000 people, about 95 percent of them women.

The majority of women trained under MDTA have shown a preference for fields traditional to their sex—health services, clerical, sales, cooking, cosmetology, and food service. But a perceptible shift is taking place. During fiscal 1968, nearly half the women in on-the-job training were learning industrial job skills.

Fashioning Manpower Programs

continued

The Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program is putting women to work at a variety of tasks, including stripping photo negatives for printing plates.

The importance of a woman's making a good personal appearance when seeking work was spotlighted by a recent project in Washington, D.C. Suzanne Parrish, a young manpower training specialist in the city's employment service office, was interviewing prospects for placement in an MDTA program. They were all young and her attention fastened on eight of them who not only lacked job readiness but were extremely overweight.

With the approval of her supervisor, and with money from the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, she set up in her spare time a program of counseling and dieting—under a doctor's direction. The eight young women shed their excess poundage while learning typing and office skills. Between them they lost a total of 360 pounds. Today they all have good jobs.

One 20-year-old girl, Sandra Bell, who dieted away 77 of her 216 pounds, now is a clerk-typist with the Treasury Department. Asked where she found the willpower to control her weight, she said, "It was the first time somebody was really interested and I had to do my part." In her spare time, she now lectures other overweight jobseekers on the problems and advantages of losing weight. At a recent session she gave the girls an extra incentive for trimming down. "When you're slim, the men look at you in a different way. It's fun."

It is no secret that one of the Nation's major manpower problems is the large number of families headed by a mother. Often these women are school dropouts without work experience or job skills. All of them who want to work, trained or not, are faced with the question: "Who will look after the children?"

Welfare mothers who need day care for their children before they can accept a job or go into training are being helped by the Work Incentive Program (WIN). Authorized by 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act, the program proposes to train by July 1972 a total of 750,000 people now on welfare and to make 250,000 full-time job placements. More than half of all WIN participants are women.

One of these was a divorced young mother with five children in Pueblo, Colo. A ninth grade dropout, she lacked the necessary education and training to hold a suitable job. She was living on welfare grants of $224 a month. Through the WIN Program, the Colorado Division of Employment obtained day-care services for her children and trained her in receptionist, typing, and stenographic skills. She also studied for and earned her high school equivalency diploma. She is now a clerk-typist for a Pueblo firm and earns about $100 a month more than she received from welfare, with good fringe benefits and opportunities for promotion.

About 300,000 people are expected to be enrolled in WIN during fiscal 1969 and 1970. A large percentage of WIN funds will be used for day care. This fiscal year some $22 million of a total budget of $117 million is being allocated for child care for an estimated 50,000 preschool and school-age youngsters. The proposed $164 million budget for fiscal 1970 calls for $63 million to be allocated to day care for 229,000 children.

Money alone, however, is not the answer. There is a nationwide shortage of day-care facilities. To encourage employers to help meet this need, the U.S. Department of Labor has set up, as an experimental and demonstration project, a day-care center for 30 children of its employees in Washington, D.C. About half the employees using the center, which is operated by a local nonprofit day-care agency under MDTA funding, could not work unless low-cost child care were available. The major objectives of the project are to explore the value of employer-sponsored child day care in recruiting and retaining new employees from inner-city poverty areas and in improving job stability and work performance among all employees whose children are enrolled in the center.

Women with minimal job training or skills are being given a boost up the employment ladder by the New Careers Program. Projects funded under New Careers train poverty-level adults as professional aides, mostly in health, education, and welfare fields. A career "ladder" is built into the program so trainees may resume their education and advance in pay and status commensurate with their developing skills and experiences.

In New Haven, Conn., a New Careers trainee is becoming an effective social worker though formally she is still an aide. A couple of years ago she was almost resigned to a life on welfare for herself and her four sons. For a while she squeezed out a living as a cab driver but when that didn't work, she had nothing else to offer an employer. She wanted a job but she had no skills and no real education.

She was rescued by a New Careers counselor who discovered that, despite her lack of education, she had a natural gift for social service. She was placed in a training slot as an aide and quickly proved herself adept at aiding the poor—helping them find better living quarters, straightening out their welfare problems, helping to keep their children in school.

In her 8 months with New Careers, she has trained on the job at the New Haven Redevelopment Agency 35 hours each week. Her entry-level salary is $5,400 a year. She has learned how to reach the city's poor and how to locate and coordinate the great number of services available to them. Taking 5 hours of classroom instruction a week enabled

her to earn a high school equivalency certificate and she is now enrolled in night college classes to fufill her ambition to become a professional social worker.

Her training supervisor says she would be lost without this former welfare recipient turned social worker. "She has a strong feminine instinct that helps her get at hard-to-reach people," the supervisor says. "There are a lot of things and people that I don't know. She does. And she's never maudlin. I guess that's because she's been through it and pulled herself up."

Although the emphasis in most manpower programs is on helping the impoverished, professionals other than nurses are also getting some attention. An ambitious program to find part-time openings for educated women is being sponsored by the U.S. Training and Employment Service (USTES) in Washington, D.C. Called Washington Opportunities for Women (WOW), the program was founded in 1964 by college alumnae clubs in the area.

A staff of volunteers fanned out over the city to question employers. They found that critical shortages of professional people had made many employers willing to make flexible arrangements to get the services of skilled part-timers. Research and clinical psychologists, writers, editors, social workers, and teachers were in short supply as well as receptionists, secretaries, and interviewers.

But the WOW staff also discovered that employers considered recent specialized training a must. A bachelor's degree was not regarded as enough for a woman out of the job market for a number of years. Nor would a rusty graduate degree fill the bill in many cases.

Spurred by the employment potential its study revealed, WOW mobilized a volunteer group of 135 Washington women to research, write, type, and edit a book for part-time women jobseekers that was published in the spring of 1967. The book's title is the same as the organization's, *Washington Opportunities for Women*, and it is described on the cover as "a guide to part-time work and study for the educated woman."

Each chapter of the 181-page book, which took 2 years to complete, analyzes a particular occupational field in terms of part-time work, volunteer work, and continuing education. Chapters cover such subjects as Government, teaching, languages, computer technology, part-time study, health and welfare, and how to prepare a résumé.

Using donated space in USTES headquarters, the WOW staff operates an information and advisory center to gather career information and job listings. They are working on two special projects in the city. One, in cooperation with Trinity College, is to develop new part-time teaching jobs. The other is to establish, with the help of the District of Columbia Department of Public Welfare, an improved social welfare program through use of part-time professionals and women with less than full professional status.

WOW so far has helped 1,500 D.C. women find jobs.

USTES officials view their agency's cooperative venture with WOW as a "unique and trailblazing effort" to open up opportunities for high-talent womanpower. They hope it will serve as a model for similar efforts across the country.

"Programs like WOW offer great potential for improving the quality of American society at a minimum of direct costs to the Government," said Charles Odell, acting director of the USTES Office of Systems Support. "Beyond the opportunity they afford for voluntary service is the direct and potential service they offer to women who need and want useful roles in line with their interests and training."

Women Enrolled in Manpower Programs 1962 - 1969

Manpower Development and Training Act

Classroom	**325,100**
On-the-job	**114,000**

Manpower Development and Training Act funds finance a variety of job training programs for unemployed and underemployed persons, and those whose jobs are threatened by technological change.

Concentrated Employment Program **38,500**

The Concentrated Employment Program draws together all available manpower and support services in urban and rural areas of worst unemployment in a concerted effort to train the hard-core disadvantaged and place them in permanent jobs.

Neighborhood Youth Corps **816,700**

The Neighborhood Youth Corps gives part-time jobs to potential school dropouts 14 and over to enable them to continue their education and provides dropouts 16 or over with the work experience or training they need to hold a permanent job.

Operation Mainstream **5,100**

Operation Mainstream develops jobs in community beautification projects, particularly in small towns and rural areas, for poverty-level adults, including older workers.

New Careers **5,050**

New Careers trains and places poor adults in jobs as professional aides in public service fields, with built-in steps for advancement.

Work Incentive Program **26,100**

The Work Incentive Program enables people to move off welfare into training and jobs.

Job Opportunities in the Business Sector **34,800**

Job Opportunities in the Business Sector is a cooperative effort by business and government to hire and train the hard-core unemployed for work in the private sector.

The Case for Legal Aides

In recent years, calls to reorganize legal services to make them more readily available—especially to the poor—have come from some of the legal profession's leading lawyers, jurists, and associations. The desirability of using professional aides to reduce the cost and to increase the effectiveness of legal services has been recognized by a U.S. Attorney General, a Supreme Court Justice, the American Bar Association, and the Association of American Law Schools.

"Not every injury requires a surgeon," said Nicholas Katzenbach, then Attorney General, in 1964. "Not every injustice requires an attorney. . . . We need what is, in effect, a new profession—a profession of advocates for the poor. . . ." Seven months later at the National Conference on Law and Poverty he justified his earlier position by saying, "Within a framework of law, policemen make legal decisions repeatedly. . . . Administrative personnel in Government and in industry make legal judgments every day. . . . Frankly, I can't see any reason why similarly instructed persons cannot provide some of the assistance needed by the poor."

Supreme Court Justice William J. Brennan, Jr., in a 1966 address to an Office of Economic Opportunity Legal Services Conference, supported the use of laymen to perform "menial and repetitive" legal tasks for the poor. Ethical canons which stand in the way are unrealistic, he suggested. "Unquestionably, only lawyers should perform professional tasks," Justice Brennan said, "but if professional tasks are deemed to include tasks menial and repetitive, and better done by some lay agency, the canons would, I think, overlook the true dimensions of the task (legal services project directors) are asked to perform."

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The American Bar Association (ABA) at its 1968 annual meeting established a special committee specifically to consider developing a role for legal assistants. The legal profession should recognize that "there are many tasks in serving a

client's needs which can be performed by a trained, nonlawyer assistant working under the direction and supervision of a lawyer," a report which led to the establishment of the committee said. The report also urged the law profession to encourage the training and employment of such assistants.

These views are strongly supported in a report completed last December for the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO). The report, *Paraprofessionals in Legal Services Programs: A Feasibility Study*, was made by the Institute for Justice and Law Enforcement of the University Research Corporation.

It was based on a review of legal services projects funded by OEO in Washington, Newark, New York, Boston, and three Connecticut cities—Norwich, New Haven, and New London. Information also was gathered on five OEO neighborhood law offices in Alaska and California already using aides and laymen for routine work in adoptions and uncontested divorce cases, work usually done by lawyers. In addition, the study group visited two private law firms—in Boston and Great Bend, Kans.—in which nearly all routine legal services are carried out by lay assistants. And finally, a considerable body of already existing literature on the legal profession was reviewed.

The report concluded:

- If all American lawyers now in private practice devoted their time to the poor, using present operating methods, in all probability "justice would still be a highly rationed commodity for large numbers of American citizens."
- In both private practice and in OEO's legal services projects, lawyers are devoting a significant amount of time to activities which could be delegated to properly trained and supervised legal aides.
- A few law firms and legal services projects are making effective and imaginative use of nonlawyer assistants.
- In many mortgage review units, insurance companies, trust departments of banks and title search companies, lay clerks, supervised by lawyers, efficiently perform important tasks normally handled by attorneys in law firms.
- The systematic development of legal aides should be part of a wholesale reorganization of legal services to virtually all classes of clients.

The Boston law firm mentioned in the study uses computers in the management of trust funds. The charging of time and expenses to clients' accounts is also computerized. A certified public accountant supervises computer operations and his assistants are programers and data processing specialists. Other laymen are in charge of some of the more important supporting functions. A business school graduate handles the financial details of the firm's trust department. His staff includes 16 girls with business school training.

Although the firm has 65 lawyers, all of its routine probate work is handled by nonlawyer "probate clerks." These clerks have a highly specialised knowledge of the law. Their tasks include filing an inventory of a deceased's assets, preparing Federal estate tax returns, preparing status of accounts reports for the probate court, and transferring securities to beneficiaries. They also prepare the estate tax on securities and arrange to pay it. Only one lawyer is needed to review their work. "In part this results from their prior experience, most of them being business school graduates or bookkeepers," the study notes. "Most, however, is learned on the job, the experienced clerks doing most of the breaking in."

The Kansas law firm cited in the study consists of only three full-time attorneys compared to 23 lay personnel. The firm specializes in workmen's compensation and insurance cases and represents the State's two largest insurance companies. The balance, or about one-third of the work, is in general practice. Internal operations are highly specialized and standardized. Great emphasis is placed on making most of the work routine.

One of the methods devised is to put all procedures in writing. For each task there is a list of instructions, including directions for handling exceptions and for spotting danger signals. The firm has prepared procedures for 33 different functions, which are revised whenever necessary. The firm also relies heavily on forms, questionnaire checklists, and model documents. Each specialist has a personal file of procedures and forms pertinent to the duties of the job. In addition to standardizing staff performance, the firm relies heavily on the use of a programed typewriter.

Among the tasks performed by these specialists, in whole or in part, are interrogatories, depositions, accounting, billing, payroll, preparing appeals to the Supreme Court, establishing and dissolving corporations, initiating workmen's compensation claims, preparing wills, and handling divorces. All of the specialists are women and those over 35 are preferred because of their stability. The firm originally hired high school graduates but later raised its requirement to 2 years of college.

These two law firms "appear to be rare exceptions among . . . private practitioners," the report observes. However, in contrast to private firms and law departments of corporations and Government agencies, "lay organizations engaged in legal activities often employ legal nonprofessionals in significant numbers to perform important duties." These organizations are frequently highly competitive with law firms and include title insurance companies, corporate patent departments, and trust departments of banks. They have been most effective where there is a long-term, high-volume demand for legal services which can be routinized.

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The Boston law firm mentioned in the study uses computers in the management of trust funds. The charging of time and expenses to clients' accounts is also computerized. A certified public accountant supervises computer operations and his assistants are programers and data processing specialists. Other laymen are in charge of some of the more important supporting functions. A business school graduate handles the financial details of the firm's trust department. His staff includes 16 girls with business school training.

Although the firm has 65 lawyers, all of its routine probate work is handled by nonlawyer "probate clerks." These clerks have a highly specialised knowledge of the law. Their tasks include filing an inventory of a deceased's assets, preparing Federal estate tax returns, preparing status of accounts reports for the probate court, and transferring securities to beneficiaries. They also prepare the estate tax on securities and arrange to pay it. Only one lawyer is needed to review their work. "In part this results from their prior experience, most of them being business school graduates or bookkeepers," the study notes. "Most, however, is learned on the job, the experienced clerks doing most of the breaking in."

The Kansas law firm cited in the study consists of only three full-time attorneys compared to 23 lay personnel. The firm specializes in workmen's compensation and insurance cases and represents the State's two largest insurance companies. The balance, or about one-third of the work, is in general practice. Internal operations are highly specialized and standardized. Great emphasis is placed on making most of the work routine.

One of the methods devised is to put all procedures in writing. For each task there is a list of instructions, including directions for handling exceptions and for spotting danger signals. The firm has prepared procedures for 33 different functions, which are revised whenever necessary. The firm also relies heavily on forms, questionnaire checklists, and model documents. Each specialist has a personal file of procedures and forms pertinent to the duties of the job. In addition to standardizing staff performance, the firm relies heavily on the use of a programed typewriter.

Among the tasks performed by these specialists, in whole or in part, are interrogatories, depositions, accounting, billing, payroll, preparing appeals to the Supreme Court, establishing and dissolving corporations, initiating workmen's compensation claims, preparing wills, and handling divorces. All of the specialists are women and those over 35 are preferred because of their stability. The firm originally hired high school graduates but later raised its requirement to 2 years of college.

These two law firms "appear to be rare exceptions among . . . private practitioners," the report observes. However, in contrast to private firms and law departments of corporations and Government agencies, "lay organizations engaged in legal activities often employ legal nonprofessionals in significant numbers to perform important duties." These organizations are frequently highly competitive with law firms and include title insurance companies, corporate patent departments, and trust departments of banks. They have been most effective where there is a long-term, high-volume demand for legal services which can be routinized.

Legal Aides

continued

"Under these favorable conditions, lay agencies have been able to develop highly efficient procedures for handling legal tasks on a mass production basis with no loss in quality and at lower cost," the study says. "In addition, lay personnel with relatively narrow skills but who are easy to train and cheap to employ are often substituted for broadly trained, comparatively expensive lawyers." Attorneys may design the assembly-line forms and procedures and supervise the nonprofessionals but in many such lay operations "they do little of the work itself."

The mortgage review process is a case in point. Most law firms use lawyers for this work. Some use highly standardized procedures and specialized personnel. But few have reached the efficiency achieved by some lay organizations. One major life insurance company cited in the study employed eight attorneys and up to 25 lay reviewers. The lay specialists reviewed the entire file in 70 percent of the cases and averaged 18 mortgages a day. Each examiner approved about $1 million in loans per week.

This company has had no out-of-pocket losses from reviewing errors by its mortgage review section. These specialists cost less than attorneys, even in-house lawyers. All of these nonprofessionals were women, and all were recruited from the ranks of the company's home office clerical staff. All were over 40 and had at least 5 years' experience with the company. Their training consisted of 3 weeks of instruction by company attorneys. Their pay was slightly higher than an experienced stenographer's. Far from being bored by the somewhat repetitive nature of the work, the women appeared satisfied and content. When the program was studied—5 years after it began—none had quit or been fired.

According to the report, the successful use of legal aides by the Boston and Great Bend law firms and by many businesses and organizations outside the law profession demonstrates the need for "creation of a national fabric of legal paraprofessional positions." The foundation for large-scale development of these new types of jobs, the report suggests, could be laid at least partially through the New Careers Program administered by the U.S. Department of Labor.

New Careers was authorized by the 1966 amendments to the Economic Opportunity Act. It was established primarily to help offset a critical shortage of teachers, police officers, doctors, nurses, and other personnel in human services such as health, education, and welfare. The program designs and creates new career jobs below the professional level in these fields for unemployed and underemployed adults. These New Careerists ease the workloads of professionals by taking over from them many of the more routine tasks and assignments, thus making expanded and improved services to the public possible.

New Careers training takes place in public or private nonprofit institutions including hospitals, schools, police departments, and welfare agencies. A career ladder is built into the jobs so that a person entering a court as a probation aide may move up to court clerk and then to probation officer, with increases in pay and training as he advances. The Labor Department pays all of the first-year costs—salary and training—for a New Careers trainee. The second year the Labor Department pays up to 100 percent of his training costs and half his salary. By the third year, the trainee must be completely on the payroll of the employing agency. The practical effect of the program, other than creating useful jobs for the poor, is to help organizations function more effectively and to expand their services.

The report recommends setting up New Careers training programs for divorce specialists, claims adjusters, investigators, case workers, and for similar types of work that now often require a lawyer but could be done by properly trained people without law degrees. The training could be funded by the Labor Department and the trainees would work for the OEO's Neighborhood Legal Services Program in a series of demonstration projects.

The report calls for creation of an independent center that "could oversee the demonstration projects, forcefully seek to make them work, and provide the national impetus and mechanism to get proven successes duplicated elsewhere"—in other words, in the private sector. The center's leaders would "establish ties" with the American Bar Association, other bar organizations, and junior colleges to "facilitate a conscious, professionwide search for modernization." If this could be done, the report concludes, "the result might be to set into motion a professional renaissance of considerable proportions—benefiting the poor and the more affluent as well—and multiplying several times the quantum of justice enjoyed by the American people."

The Private War of Bill Butler

By Emil Michael Aun

When President Nixon in his inaugural address called for those "small, splendid efforts" by volunteers to help the poor, he might have had people like Bill Butler in mind. This big, gentle black man with an engaging personality and iron determination has conducted a one-man war on poverty in the poorer sections of Washington by placing 48 young Negroes in college.

"There is too much competition out there," he tells his youthful charges. "You got to have education if you want to make it. Luck won't help you a bit. Education is the key."

He guides them into college along one of the oldest and trustiest pathways—the athletic scholarship. Bill Butler proteges now grace the basketball squads of colleges and universities in Washington State, Texas, Florida, Colorado, Utah, Oregon, Idaho, Indiana, and the District of Columbia.

"I use basketball as a springboard," he said. "Education is number one and basketball is number two. This is the only means black kids have of getting in free. They can't afford to pay to go to the University of Seattle, Washington State, or Oregon. They couldn't begin to pay because a lot of these kids' families are on welfare."

Until the middle of March, when he moved to a new job with the Work Incentive Program, Butler, 46, was a bindery operations supervisor for the U.S. Department of Labor, for which he has worked 8 years. Since 1951 he has devoted almost all his spare time to his work as athletic director and counselor for the Metropolitan Police Boys Club No. 2 in Washington.

When Butler started working there, Number 2 was the toughest precinct in town. One of the first youngsters he met was a 120-pound, 14-year-old boy named Willie Wood. Butler has a sharp eye for talent and it was obvious that despite his size Wood was an athlete of surpassing prowess.

"I spent a lot of hours with this guy showing him the value of an education, the reason why he should stay in school and go on to college and take advantage of his athletic abilities."

With Butler's help Wood won a football scholarship at the University of Southern California. He became the first black quarterback and, in his senior year, the first black cocaptain in the Pacific Conference. Then, with another assist from Butler, he moved on to the Green Bay Packers and became an all-pro defensive back.

"About eight clubs turned him down because he was too small and injury prone," Butler recalls. "Green Bay was my last resort. This was Vince Lombardi's first year as coach and I think they had won only one game the year before.

"I wrote Green Bay and gave them a rundown on Willie Wood's ability. They checked him out in his senior year when he played in the Copper Bowl in Arizona and was pleased, and they told me to have him sign as soon as possible. I contacted him and told him about it. They signed him as a free agent."

'YOU GOT TO HAVE EDUCATION IF YOU WANT TO MAKE IT. LUCK WON'T HELP YOU A BIT. EDUCATION IS THE KEY.

Mr. Aun is a member of the Manpower Administration information staff.

Bill Butler *continued*

Success breeds familiarity. At the outset, the Packers were quite formal in their letters and addressed him as "Dear Mr. Butler." After the Wood episode, he became "Dear Bill" and he was warmly assured that the Packers were interested in any other prospects he might suggest.

All the letters coming to Butler these days are cordial. He has developed a reputation for his ability to spot basketball talent overlooked by regular scouts. (His emphasis switched from football to basketball when he discovered the latter sport offered more scholarship opportunities for his boys). The coaches at various colleges assure him the climate out their way is good, that they have no prejudice against blacks, and ask if he could send them a fast forward, preferably about six-foot-four, who is a whiz at rebounding.

It was when Butler turned from football to basketball that the trickle of athletic scholarships for his boys turned into a flood. And it happened almost by accident. "I've never played basketball, but I was given a team to coach at the Boys Club and had some pretty good players. I didn't know what to do with them, but I took them out and let them run up and down the floor and get beat. I got smart right away and gave them some real training. We came out with some pretty good results and some pretty good players."

Good as they were, however, no college offers were coming their way, not even when they left the Boys Club squad and became stars at local high schools. Up to that time, the talent scouts who swarmed over Washington during the basketball season concentrated on the Catholic high schools. "The kids in the public schools were always overlooked," said Butler. "One reason is because the kids always had poor grades and the other reason is they didn't get much publicity. I knew I had just as good players as anywhere in the country."

His chance to prove it came in 1966 when the National Collegiate Athletic Association finals were held at the

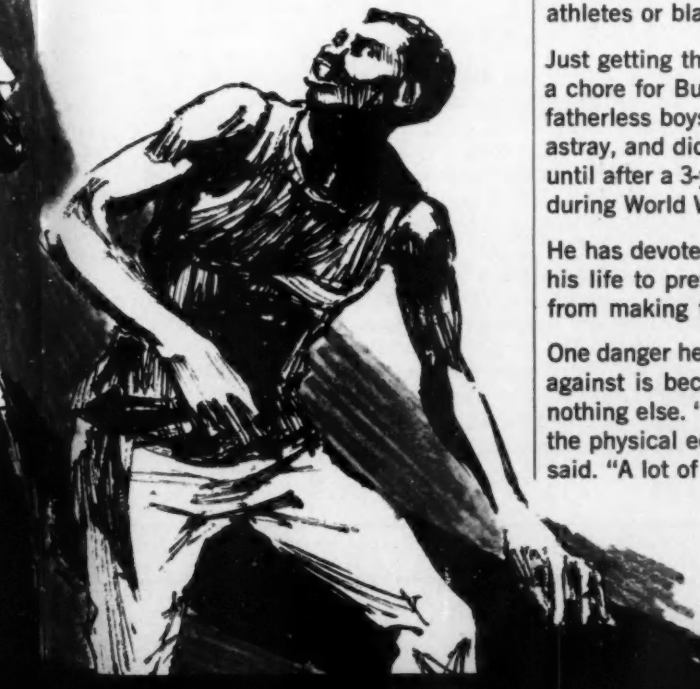
University of Maryland, near Washington. He called the Utah and Texas Western coaches at their motels and talked them into meeting him at a nearby gym where several Negro teams were in a tournament.

"It was about 60 players and one of the coaches said he had never seen so many good basketball players in his life in one house," Butler recalls.

The Utah coach picked out four boys for his squad but ran into the familiar stumbling block—low grades. Still he wanted to help them. He arranged for them to go to two western junior colleges, one in Idaho and the other in Utah, where the requirements were not so stiff.

"One kid had to go to day, night, and summer school to get out of high school, and was sent to a little town in Utah where all he did was to study," Butler said. "He came up with a 3.5 average in his first year and moved on to Seattle University and the other guy came up with a 3.2 and went to the University of Oregon. These guys are now carrying a C average, so it just goes to show that when a guy gets a chance, he can do as well as any other fellow."

This experience was an eye opener for Butler. The big prestige universities could take their pick of the crop, so they naturally chose boys who were good in school as well as on the court. That pretty well ruled out his youngsters, whom he admits were much better under the basket than in the classroom. He found the real market for what he jokingly calls his "merchandise" in remote western colleges and junior colleges which are short on talent scouts and whose admission standards are easier to meet than those of the better known schools.



Since then he has concentrated his efforts on the smaller schools and has hit paydirt. Nearly all the 48 boys he has placed have entered college in the last 2 years, and he expects to help win athletic scholarships for 30 this autumn.

"Anybody that comes to me and says, 'Mr. Butler, I want to go to school,' I say 'Okay, baby,' and I strike out and get him somewhere. I have even taken guys who have been out of school 4 or 5 years and convinced them they should go back to school."

Butler's dedication to the advancement of Negro youngsters stems from his own frustrations as a black boy raised in the slums without a father. He was a fine athlete himself, particularly in baseball and football, and made a name as a semipro football player with the old Washington Lions. But in those days, Negro athletes were welcome neither in college nor by the pros.

"I want to see that these kids get a better chance than I got. There wasn't any breaks around in my time, you know in the late thirties and forties. These avenues were not open to black athletes or black kids in general."

Just getting through high school was a chore for Butler. Like so many fatherless boys, he let himself be led astray, and did not get his diploma until after a 3-year hitch in the Marines during World War II.

He has devoted the last 20 years of his life to preventing other youngsters from making the same mistakes.

One danger he tries to guard his boys against is becoming athletes and nothing else. "My advice is to forget the physical education courses," he said. "A lot of the guys want to go into physical education, and come back and be a high school teacher and coach. But I'm saying, 'Man, get into business, commerce, marketing so your white brother can take you home in the summer and set you up with a job in his father's business and lay the groundwork for your future. So when you get out of school you can go into business, in marketing where the money is.'

"A long time ago, you know, it was a foregone conclusion that blacks could become professionals like teachers, doctors, and lawyers. They couldn't be a scientist, you see, or a physicist, or a salesman. But, hell, now you can be anything you want to be."

Butler's passion for education goes beyond college. If his boys cannot qualify for the universities, he advises them to learn something else—like a trade or a skill. "As they say, if you can't catch a plane, just catch a train. That's education, skills. Don't let anything stop you."

Butler's natural talents as a leader of youth have been formally recognized by the Labor Department. In mid-March he won the most satisfactory promotion of his career. The District of Columbia Manpower Administration took him aboard as a youth training opportunity specialist for the Work Incentive Program. It will be his job to counsel and guide dropouts and the children of welfare mothers.

Meanwhile, he scours the playgrounds for basketball and football talent, and keeps up his correspondence and other contacts with the colleges.

"I want to get everybody in school that I can. Everybody that's out there. This is my aim. I want these guys to succeed.

"The guys are begging for this education. I have the contacts with the colleges, and I figure I have the knack to get to people and make myself known to people that other people feel they can't reach. Somebody have got to reach down and pick these fellows up and lead them out of that ghetto and put them on the higher side of the mountain."

News & Notes

The U.S. Department of Labor now officially recognizes men and women with a history of drug addiction and legal offenses as "handicapped" and will serve them as such in all manpower programs. "Applicants in these categories need every possible assistance in their search for employment and in their efforts to make themselves employable," Secretary of Labor George P. Shultz said.

* * *

The AFL-CIO's new manpower arm, the Human Resources Development Institute (HRDI), is now operating in 50 cities with hard-core unemployment problems. HRDI's goal is to involve more unions, at the community level, in programs to hire, train, and retain the hard-core disadvantaged. Established last September with a $1.5 million grant from the U.S. Department of Labor, HRDI receives some $250,000 in goods and services from the AFL-CIO. Currently, HRDI is working with the National Alliance of Businessmen on a nationwide volunteer "buddy" program to help newly hired hard-core employees get through their probationary period. HRDI recruits workers in companies hiring the hard-core unemployed and trains them to be "buddies" to the new employees. The "buddy" helps the disadvantaged employee adjust to his new work environment.

* * *

More than 42,000 welfare recipients have been shifted in 5 months to jobs or skill-training projects through the Work Incentive Program (WIN). By July 1, WIN will be in effect in all 50 States.

* * *

The Department of Labor funded 19,361 training slots in worker-short public service fields in the first 30 months of operation of the New Careers Program. New Careers trains unemployed adults as professional aides in such fields as health, education, and welfare. The Manpower Administration has been operating the program, authorized by Congress in 1966, since April 1967.

The use of automation in matching jobseekers and jobs through the Federal-State employment security system is continuing. The automated Job Bank operation in Baltimore is being duplicated in Atlanta, Chicago, St. Louis, Portland (Ore.), and Hartford and will be expanded to another 36 cities next year. At least 20 States now are engaged in some aspect of automating public employment services or in strengthening already existing automated unemployment insurance facilities.

* * *

Five Federal agencies responsible for carrying out social and economic programs will have common boundaries and regional office locations, under a new directive issued by President Nixon. Purpose of the streamlining move is to make Government operate more efficiently and to assure close coordination of Federal manpower and anti-poverty efforts. The order affects the Office of Economic Opportunty, the Small Business Administration, and the Departments of Labor; Health, Education, and Welfare; and Housing and Urban Development. "By rationalizing, coordinating, and decentralizing the systems through which Government provides important social and economic services, we can begin at last to realize the hopes and dreams of those who created them," the President said.

* * *

The most critical problem in education today is to recruit, train, and retain quality personnel to staff the Nation's schools. Nor will there be any easing of the teacher shortage in the near future. These are the chief findings of an assessment of education manpower needs made by the U.S. Office of Education. Future needs, according to the report, demand a more efficient use of staff, with aides and assistants taking on routine duties while teachers operate at various professional levels—interns, staff teachers, and master teachers. Such differentiated staff "suggests . . . that a college education might not be the only route to a teacher career," said the report.

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Publications

Single copies of any of the following publications can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C 20210. For multiple copies of priced items write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Hope for Tomorrow

Booklet with text and photographs on the first year of the Concentrated Employment Program in the Mississippi Delta.

Job Development for the Hard-to-Employ

A 119-page analysis and evaluation of job development for the hard-core unemployed in the Concentrated Employment Program. The report was prepared under contract with the Manpower Administration by the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations of the University of Michigan and Wayne State University.

Statistics on Manpower—A Supplement to the Manpower Report of the President

Statistical tables with data on the labor force, employment and unemployment, training, and related manpower series. Issued as a supplement to the 1969 Manpower Report. $1.00

Americans Volunteer

Manpower / Automation Research Monograph No. 10. Reports the results of first nationwide survey of organized volunteer services in health, education, recreation, and social welfare fields. Study sponsored by the Manpower Administration. 50 cents.

Interviewing Guide for Specific Disabilities—Heart Disease

One in a series of guides for counselors. Acquaints them with the nature of heart disease and helps them assess an individual's physical capacities in relation to a field of work or specific job. 20 cents.

Schedule C—Precertification List

Lists occupations for which there are not enough able, willing, and qualified workers available for employment and in which the employment of aliens will not adversely affect wages and working conditions of similarly employed U S. workers. Qualified aliens are precertified by the Department of Labor for listed occupations.

Older Workers — Manpower Programs for Senior Citizens

Pamphlet describes Operation Mainstream, special programs for older workers, and other Manpower Administration services for mature men and women. 15 cents.

Manpower Programs for Older Workers

Flyer giving brief description of Manpower Administration programs for older age groups.

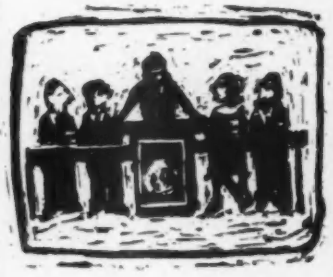
Manpower Research Inventory for Fiscal Years 1966 and 1967

Inventory of selected manpower research reports sponsored by member agencies of the Interagency Committee on Manpower Research, abstracted and indexed by the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) Clearinghouse for Vocational and Technical Education at Ohio State University. Can be purchased only from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office. $2.75 a copy.

An Employer's Guide to On-the-Job Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA).

Pamphlet containing information for businessmen and others on eligibility, procedures, and assistance under the MDTA for developing and meeting costs of on-the-job training projects. 15 cents.

MANPOWER SEMINARS



American Student Activism in Comparative Perspective, by Dr. Seymour Lipset, professor of government and social relations, Harvard University.

Examination of student involvement in politics, the factors motivating students, and the social role of student activists.

Economic Issues for the Future, by Dr. Arthur M. Okun, as chairman of the Council of Economic Advisers. Address on the economic outlook and efforts to reconcile high employment with price stability.

Working With Automation, by Sam Zagoria, member of the National Labor Relations Board.

Discussion of the growth of automation and the responsibilities this involves, including the need to provide advance notice of automation to minimize hardship to employees.

MAJOR PERIODICALS

Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment

Monthly publication which classifies 150 major labor areas of the country in six labor supply categories. Carries a monthly statistical supplement providing data on work force, unemployment, and employment in these areas and a listing of firms which have been certified as eligible for preference in Federal procurement contract awards. Summary table on nonagricultural job openings in selected occupations is published periodically.

Employment and Wages

Quarterly with statistics on employment and wages of workers covered by State unemployment insurance laws and of Federal workers covered by unemployment compensation.

Employment Service Statistics

Monthly compilation of data on placements, job openings and referrals, employer services, counseling and testing, and other selected activities of the Federal-State Employment Service system.

Unemployment Insurance Statistics

Monthly with data collected and reported under unemployment insurance programs and Federal programs covering Federal civilian employees and ex-servicemen. Data include benefit payment activities, employer contributions, appeals decisions, and disqualifications for selected industries and occupations.

Farm Labor Developments

Published during the agricultural season—about five or six times a year. Contains articles on such topics as seasonal employment, hired farmworkers, rural manpower, and other farm labor matters. Employment and wage tables are also included.

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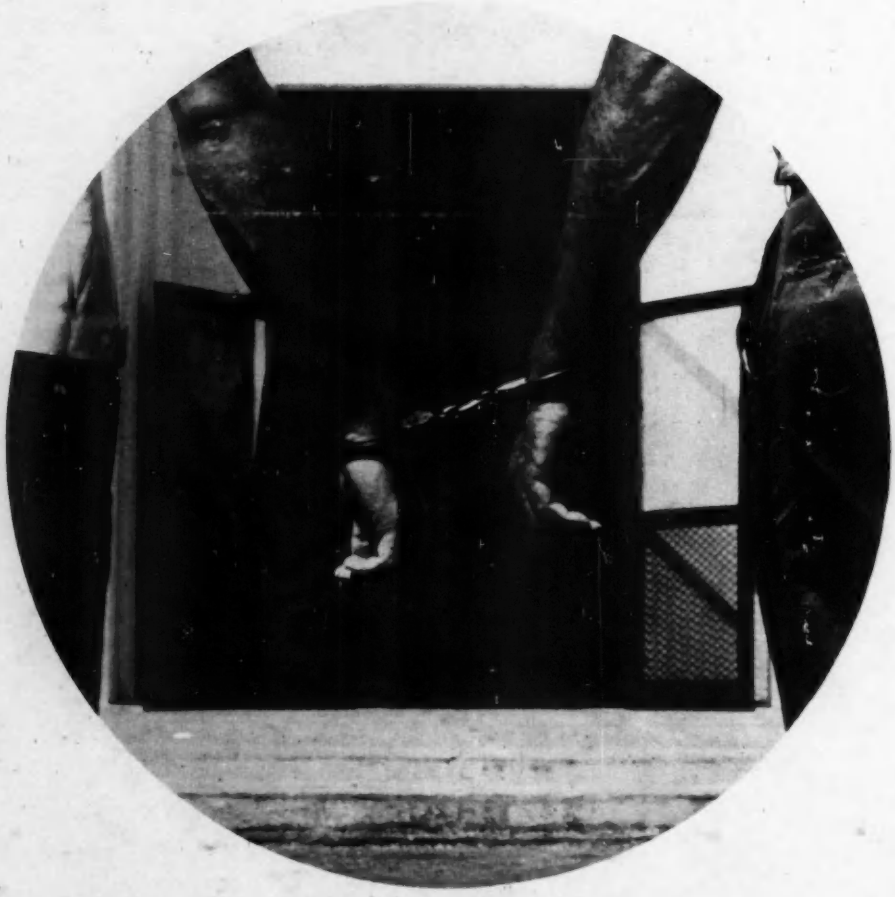

CAN THIS BE THE BEGINNING OF REHABILITATION?

It can be if the prisoner is entering Draper Correctional Center, where the rate of repeat offenders among inmates who completed a job training program dropped from 70 to 30 percent. See *The Road Back* in this issue of MANPOWER.